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Learning to Read
through Experience

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Learning to Read *through* Experience

by

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Preface

Reading has always been considered the most important subject in the curriculum, particularly in the primary grades. More books have been written on the theory and practice of teaching reading than on any other subject; more research has been planned and carried through. Perhaps also more change has taken place in the methods and materials of teaching reading than in any other field.

Long ago children started learning to read by learning the letters, their sequence in the alphabet, and their sounds. They progressed to syllables and phonetic word families. The next step was words. A radical departure came when children read word groups or phrases, and even sentences, before they knew all the individual words in them. The present discussion of beginning reading takes one more step and begins with the background experiences and ideas of the child. The child expresses these experiences and ideas for the teacher to write down. He then reads them back, first as a whole, and then in sentences, phrases, and finally in words.

The present approach to reading emphasizes first the all-round development of the child. We believe that he must be ready to read before he attempts to learn to read. This readiness is very broad and includes his emotional, social, and physical development as well as his mental development. It is dependent on his experience as well as on his age. Time spent in developing this readiness not only saves time in the end but reduces

failure very materially. It helps the child to start out his school life feeling himself a success. By helping him to develop personally it also gives the foundation for future success in other fields and other situations.

Many other books have been written on reading readiness and beginning reading, but we believe this book to be unique in several respects. It assumes a broader basis for reading readiness. It gives detailed and specific suggestions for developing the various factors influencing reading readiness. These suggestions are based on actual classroom experience. It develops the theory and technique of the coöperative experience chart and shows how it may be used effectively to introduce reading from books. It discusses how to plan programs for testing and evaluating the children's readiness to read, and how to plan both administratively and educationally for their grouping.

The authors wish to express their thanks to the teachers of the Santa Barbara City Schools for their coöperation; to Mrs. Fay M. Layne, who so willingly coöperated in the group of pictures depicting the teaching of a chart; to Mrs. Estelle Pike for the group of pictures showing dramatic possibilities for utilizing charts; and to Francis W. Noel and Dixon L. MacQuiddy, whose excellent photographic work has made this book meaningful; to Mrs. Hazel Gridley and Mrs. Lois Proud for the descriptions of the reading environment.

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For criticism and suggestions on certain phases of the manuscript, the writers are grateful to Dr. Paul R.

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I

What Is Reading Readiness?

Reading really begins when the child first interprets meaning from a picture. Each stage of reading is a step in readiness for further reading and this continues as long as there is development in the reading process. Thus, if even in adulthood, one's consciousness of the possibilities and means of improvement in the thought-getting process or the rate, results in an improvement in our reading it may be considered a stage in the readiness process.

Thus it can be seen that any sharp division, or any division at all, between reading readiness and reading must be one of degree and convenience rather than of kind. As a matter of convenience in the following discussion *all reading development preceding the actual reading from a book will be considered reading readiness*. This readiness may be continued after book reading has been begun when there is preparation for further reading.

Reading is a very complex task. We used to believe that any child six years old could learn to read if he really tried, especially if he had average intelligence. This was true more often than might be expected because many of the other factors involved have a tendency to be related in one way or another with

mental ability. But altogether too often there was failure. Sometimes that failure was complete, but more often it created a situation even more serious. There developed wrong habits, with lack of confidence and dislike for anything connected with reading which made future development of good reading almost impossible. School people began to ask two questions. Why do so many children fail in first grade reading? What can we do to prevent it?

Beginning reading was studied to see just what the child must do to learn to read successfully. This is what they found.

A child must be able to see well. And this means more than just seeing tables and chairs and the objects in a picture. This is all that has been asked of him so far. But now the demands are greater. His eyes must focus exactly so that he may see every part of the material clearly. He must be able to distinguish very small differences such as between *n* and *m*; *l*, *t* and *f*; *h*, *b* and *p*; *d* and *q*; *c* and *e*; *v* and *y*; *n* and *u*. He must recognize different word patterns and distinguish between *went* and *want*; *than*, *then* and *them*; *hot* and *hat*; *bag*, *big* and *dig*, and others too numerous to mention. He not only must be *able* to see these differences, but he must be *in the habit* of seeing them and recognizing them. Further, his eyes must develop the habit of looking at these words not as one does a picture where direction is unimportant but in left to right order. Otherwise, a word which might be familiar becomes a total stranger if he happens to look at it from right to left. Under such circumstances there is no distinction between *on* and *no*, or *saw*

and *was*. The approach to the problem of sight, then, is threefold, testing to locate visual inadequacies, maturation of the eyes, and training in specific eye habits.

A child must be able to hear distinctly. If a child does not hear distinctly he can not be expected to tie up the correct printed symbol with its correct sound. If he is not in the habit of listening for the lesser differences in sounds of words, if *them* and *then* sound no different to him, if he does not distinguish between *am* and *an* and *and* he probably will not read them correctly. We must be certain his hearing is adequate, and then we must train him to listen to these small differences in sound.

A child must be able to speak correctly. This problem is very similar to the one of hearing, except that the errors will be different. If he still uses *w* for *r* he will be confused by *ring* and *wing*, *runs* and *ones*, or *w* for *l* may confuse *let* and *wet*. If he has other inadequacies of speech it may be that he does not distinguish the sounds accurately and thus falls into those difficulties. The child needs practice not only in hearing sounds correctly but also in manipulating his vocal organs so as to articulate accurately.

A child must have a certain amount of social development. If he is unhappy—crying often, lacking confidence in himself and others—learning to read is going to be a much more difficult task for him than for the happy child. For many children who are on the borderline this is the determining factor in their success or failure. The child must learn to live with the group without too great disturbance either in-

wardly or outwardly if he is to be free to give his attention to his reading.

A child must have a certain amount of mental development. This factor has loomed so large as to overshadow all the others. It undoubtedly is important and, within limits, perhaps the most important single factor in reading success. But it is very much of a mistake to consider it the only factor. Reading is a process of symbolization, of understanding that certain black marks in a certain order on a page stand for certain ideas. It is a long process in the developing of concepts from the object or action itself, through the interpretation of a picture of that object or action, to the understanding that this same object or action may be expressed in printed symbols bearing no inherent relation to the original. It requires a certain stage of mental development to accomplish this. Memory and attention are also important factors, and both are, in a measure, related to mental development. These abilities may be consciously developed to a certain extent but mere maturation plays an essential part.

A child must have attained a certain facility with language. If a child has a limited speaking vocabulary some of the words in his reading will not come easily and naturally for he is not in the habit of using them. He may not have such a breadth of vocabulary that he will understand all the teacher says, or his handicap may be so great that he does not understand all the words in the simple books that he is reading, even when he hears the word spoken. As language development is closely related to intelligence the diffi-

culty may be immaturity. The difficulty may be reflected from a limited language ability of his parents or may be the result of insufficient stimulating companionship.

A child must have a background of experience. Our only means of understanding, of interpreting what we see and hear and feel is through our own experience, real and vicarious. When a child's background of experience is so limited that he can find in it no basis for interpreting the materials he reads, it will have no more meaning for him than highly technical material in an unfamiliar field would for us. In hastily glancing over a few of the pre-primers we find many examples of material which would conceivably be entirely beyond the experience of many groups of children such as the children in the poorer city districts, and those who have no opportunity to go to the country, rural children in areas lacking such features as waterways, airports and airlines, and so forth. Stories which might conceivably be outside the experience of groups of children are those dealing with farm life, birds and bird's nests, boats, airplanes and trains, the care of a car, such play equipment as scooters, wagons, teeters, slides, and merry-go-rounds. The plea is not that these stories should not be taught. Quite the contrary. Rather, teachers must be very sure that every child has a background of experience which will make the story meaningful. If he does not already have such background, it is her job to see that he has those experiences.

A child must have an interest in learning to read. If interest is present, there will be learning, and no

important learning can take place without interest. Voluntary effort is a measure of interest. But we can not be interested in what we do not know about. The child must, then, become familiar with the materials of reading, with its possibilities and through his experiences develop a real desire to read.

A child must have certain specific habits and abilities needed in reading. He must have the ability to concentrate, to follow directions, to discriminate between likenesses and differences, to look at words and sentences from left to right, and many others. These specific habits can all be developed and should be before the child gets far in reading.

A child must begin the interpretation of written expression in a meaningful situation. Before any child starts "reading from books" he should have acquired certain habits, abilities, and understandings so that this first most important experience shall be successful. He should have satisfied the requirements listed above. Further, he should have had experience in getting meaning from printed stories, sentences, phrases, and words. Besides this he should have a sight vocabulary large enough and rich enough in ideas to insure his success in this new phase of reading.

It is this initial transition of getting thought from the printed page that is difficult and so important. One of the most effective means of bridging this gap and preparing for actual book reading is the co-operative experience chart.

The children have lived an experience which insures the material being meaningful to them. They have made the story themselves and have seen the

teacher translate their thoughts into print. Reading it back again from print into thought is the next logical step. Words and phrases here have very definite meaning associations.

Coöperative experience charts are valuable as a meaningful way of introducing the reading of any new topic or unit at any level where they may be needed. They are flexible and can be fitted to the needs of the group and the situation.

II

Developing Personal Readiness

The kindergarten's primary purpose is to help children adjust to the school situation so that they will be more effective in their own life now and better ready to meet the situations to come. There are no formal requirements, no stated curriculum to cover. Here, as no where else in the school system, are teachers free to plan activities and experiences to fit the needs of their particular children. *This high privilege carries with it a high responsibility.* Teachers must learn to recognize needs of children, be familiar with means of meeting those needs and be aware of all the ways in which she can help the child to grow naturally and normally and be better ready to succeed in the next steps in his development. One of the main problems is to help children to develop so that learning to read will not be too difficult a task. We can say the "main problem" for two reasons. Aside from developing well-adjusted children the main objective of the first grade is usually the development of the child's reading ability from where it is at his entrance to the point where he can easily go. And, second, most of the usual activities of the kindergarten contribute in one way or another to ~~this~~ readiness for reading, especially to the develop-

ment of the child's personal and social adjustment.

However, many, in fact most children, do not have the benefit of going to kindergarten. The experiences discussed here are just as necessary for them as if they had been able to go. There is this difference. The children will be one year older than if they were entering kindergarten. This means that they are on an average a year more mature and that they have had an added year of experience. These experiences may have been rich or meager, helpful or, in some cases, actually harmful to their readiness to read. The teacher who first has the responsibility of these children must determine what stage has been reached and what development is still needed. Progress should in most cases be faster than with the younger group. Let each teacher fully realize that each child, in whatever group he may be placed administratively, still must have developed readiness to read, in all the phases discussed in the following sections, before he should start book reading, no matter how long or how short a time this may take.

How can the teacher of beginners help to develop reading readiness? What are some of the needs of which teachers should be aware? What can they do to satisfy those needs? What specific interests, habits and attitudes can they develop which will help with this problem?

1. A CHILD NEEDS SECURITY

The child needs to feel secure, to have an emotional stability. As we look over the children who

come to us in the fall how shall we distinguish those who particularly need help here? Taking each child in turn we may ask ourselves some questions.

Does he take a natural place in the group? Or does he withdraw from the activities and conversation? Or on the other hand does he over-assert himself?

Does he cry often?

Does he have tantrums?

Does he seem unhappy in school?

Children who thus indicate their need for emotional development have first claim on a teacher's help. If there is not improvement, not only will their reading suffer, but so will every activity they attempt, whether it be intellectual, physical, or social. A seriously maladjusted personality is the greatest handicap there is to effective and happy living.

The first step in helping the child who is unadjusted is to try to locate the cause of the difficulty. It is important to note here that the same situation may cause any of the difficulties listed depending on how the child reacts to it. Here for convenience they are listed under various headings:

If a child is shy and withdraws from the group:

Does he lack experience in social contacts?

Does he feel insecure and unable to compete successfully with the group?

Does he need confidence?

Is he not well?

Is he homesick?

If a child over-asserts himself in the group:

Is he over-compensating for a feeling of insecurity?

Has he been spoiled at home?

Has he had to force himself into things to get recognition in his pre-school contacts?

- Is he getting a normal amount of attention otherwise?
- If a child cries often:
 - Is he homesick?
 - Is he well?
 - Is he getting a normal amount of attention otherwise?
 - Is it a result of some home situation?
 - Is he insecure in the school situation?
 - Has the child just not learned to control his tears?
- If a child has tantrums:
 - Are they the result of frustration?
 - Is he bidding for attention?
 - Is it the result of insecurity in the group?
 - Is it merely uncontrolled temper?
- If a child is unhappy in school:
 - Is it a reflection of his home life?
 - Does he feel insecure?
 - Is he failing to achieve a sense of belonging?
 - Is he having a normal amount of satisfaction from his school experiences?

Thus the teacher should try to analyse the difficulties of children with these points in mind. She should schedule a conference with the parent where these and other problems may be discussed in a further attempt to locate the difficulty. The attempts at solution will, of course, be directed at removing the cause and providing whatever remedial experiences are necessary.

Increasing the Child's Sense of Security

Some of the experiences which may increase the child's feeling of security are:

Show the child at every opportunity that you like him and are interested in him. Do not however go to the extreme of overburdening him with affection.

Be free with encouraging smiles and pats.

Show approval of sincere effort no matter what the result of that effort is.

Show special interest in the child's work.

Show the class when he has done something interesting.

Display any of his work that shows effort.

Remind him when necessary that you are willing to help him.

Give the child responsibility as soon as he is able to assume a bit. He may be ready for it even before you realize it.

Give further responsibility as improvement is noted.

Give the child an opportunity to volunteer to be a helper.

Talk with the child explaining his place in the room and how he can be a helper.

See that other children are helpful in inviting him to share their games and play.

Take the child's hand and enter into the game with him if necessary.

See that he has friends and playmates.

Encourage the child to do a little each day.

Use no pressure in getting him to talk or act before the class.

Give the child an opportunity for free play and creative work.

Furnish plenty of opportunity for him to help and to express himself.

See that all classroom activities seem purposeful and meaningful to him.

Always be fair and just.

Work with the home on the problem.

Aiding the Child's Social Development

If a child's social development has been neglected, not given proper encouragement, or been of an unfortunate type the school must do all it can to correct

the situation. Some suggestions which may help the child in making his social contacts when they are selected and adapted to the particular individual are as follows:

Utilize group discussions, criticisms, and suggestions on being good friends and helpers.

Guide children in learning to know why and when an act is good or bad.

Discuss taking turns in talking, playing, and so forth, to share pleasures and responsibilities.

Explain why we must take care of ourselves and let others take care of themselves.

If a child interferes with the rights of others through his desire to help

a. Thank the child for his good intentions, show him he could help in another way which would be better.

b. Have him wait until others ask for his help.

c. Explain that each must share in the doing.

Call the child's attention to good examples of behavior and discuss why these examples are good.

Develop standards of conduct with the class. Print these standards on a chart.¹ Display the chart in the room and read it to the children frequently.

Discuss group rules for playing harmoniously together.

Discuss the need for including others in our play.

Discuss being a good neighbor in play as well as in work. Remember that our side can't always win.

Use social approval or disapproval to influence the child's behavior.

Begin good social habits the first day of school, then see to it that both the teacher and the child are consistent in practicing them.

Observe social courtesies in the room—"please," "thank you," "pardon me," asking for things correctly.

¹ See pages 125-129 for suggestions in building a chart; also III. 29.

Give the children, through their activities, abundant opportunity to practice good social behavior.

Praise a child for being a good helper or friend when it is evidently difficult for him to be so.

Find out the trouble if a child is annoying to or annoyed by others. Discuss the problem with all concerned in order to have the children participate in developing standards of conduct. Help the child to assert his rights if need be. Help him to be more considerate of the rights of others.

Stand by in case of difficulty to see that there is fair play and that the child needing it will have moral support in seeing his problem through.

Give the children increasing opportunity to handle their own problems as fast as they are able to do it.

Encourage the children to work together harmoniously on group projects.

Praise a child who is cheerful and a "good sport" when another has a prominent part, even though he wishes that privilege himself.

Provide a wealth of supervised activities which will call for the putting into practice of the conduct discussed in the foregoing suggestions.

Work with the home on solving problems.

Strengthening the Child's Self-confidence

A child needs a certain amount of confidence in himself. Security lends confidence, and confidence in turn increases security. Confidence is a basic need in social development, and increasing social development builds confidence. Besides these there are specific ways in which a child's confidence in himself may be increased.

Give him responsibility and praise.

Call the attention of the group to any noteworthy effort or performance.

See that he is often chosen to participate in games and other activities.

Encourage clear thinking and not making too hasty decisions.

Encourage him to do things for others.

Be sure that the child feels that you trust him, and have confidence in his ability to "come through".

Providing Desirable Attention

A certain amount of attention seems to be a necessity for everyone. If a child receives this for desirable activities all is well. But if he receives too much attention he becomes "spoiled" and continues to demand an undue share or he may be embarrassed by it and become shy and withdrawn. If he does not get enough attention several things may happen. He may substitute something for it, or he may try various means of obtaining it. There may be various substitutions but a common one is to withdraw and to live in a world of his own, a day-dreaming world where he avoids the realities that do not satisfy his needs. When he strives to get the attention that is not readily forthcoming he tends to repeat those activities for which he does receive some attention. He prefers naturally that this be favorable attention but if he does not receive the favorable attention he will take the unfavorable in preference to none at all. It has been said that by watching a child a little while one can tell the things for which he has received attention.

It is only too often true that the difficulties about which the most fuss has been made, continue to be the greatest problems. This is true in reading and

other learning situations as well as in matters of discipline and personality development. This does not mean that we should never correct a child or tell him that he should not do thus and so. It does mean that we should never scold him. It means that a situation that needs correction should be discussed without emotion and his coöperation enlisted if possible. It means that the positive "do" should be emphasized rather than the negative "don't". It means that anything that can should receive commendation, thus giving him recognition for desirable activities and diverting his attention from the undesirable. The less there is to praise the more alert the teacher must be in making full use of what there is.

See that each child receives the attention which he needs through some desirable activity.

When the child starts attention-getting devices, distract him by giving him something to do which will get him legitimate attention.

This type of child should receive plenty of opportunity to:

Recite poems or tell stories before the class.

Participate in odd jobs around the room.

Run errands to other rooms.

Turn his energy toward helping others.

Show the class when he has done something interesting.

He should be led to analyze and evaluate his own work and praised for that which is really worth while.

Many of the suggestions for building security and self-confidence are founded on opportunities for receiving favorable attention from others and so are equally applicable here.

Teaching the Child to Control His Feelings

Some children have never learned to control their feelings. They cry and fuss when hurt even a little and let their anger blaze out over very minor things. Part of this fuss may be an attention-getting device but sometimes children just never have gotten the idea that these feelings can or should be controlled.

In case of crying over minor things:

Show him how to breathe deeply and be brave if he is a little hurt.

Direct his attention to something outside himself.

Praise him if he stops crying quickly.

Point out to others that he is brave.

In case of anger:

If there is a tantrum due to temper, isolate the child. See that he gets plenty of rest. If tantrums usually occur at certain times, give him a short rest period just before that time.

Talk with the child, showing him what he could have done or said instead of going into a tantrum.

Praise him when he makes an effort to control his temper, even if it was not entirely successful.

Frustration is often the cause of temper explosions. It seems to the child that everything he wants to do or tries to do is frowned on or forbidden. After a while he just explodes when told he must not do this or that. The demonstration may seem to be all out of proportion to the cause but it is a case of accumulation over a period of time. Teachers can help to guard against or correct this by:

Using positive rather than negative suggestions.

By a "do this" instead of "not do that".

Be certain that an activity should be stopped before

saying anything about it. If a teacher will stop to think about it, she may find it has as much value as something else she wants the child to do, or it may be directed into worthwhile activities.

The Problem of the Spoiled Child

There will always be a few "spoiled" children in a group. Usually they have been given too much attention or have been waited on too much. If treating them the same as the rest of the group proves to be more of an adjustment than they can face, recognize it and arrange for helping them make the adjustment. Opportunities should be provided for their getting legitimate attention as suggested above.

Independence should be developed. Some suggestions to this end follow:

Give the child a task well within his ability but one he does not ordinarily do. Assure him that he can do it. Stick with it, encouraging him, until he accomplishes it. Then praise his success. Gradually increase the difficulty of the tasks as his self-confidence increases. More and more give him instructions and then leave him alone to finish the task.

Have the set-up of the room such that children can do most things for themselves, as taking care of wraps, getting and putting away materials, and so forth.

See that the child understands various tasks expected of him during the day, so that when he finishes one he knows what to do next, can get the necessary material and go ahead with it.

Praise a dependent child's show of independence even if he might have chosen a better means.

Self-confidence is needed, so many of the suggestions under that topic are valuable.

See that the child understands the general basic principles of classroom procedure to give him a basis for determining for himself what he should or should not do. Relate his attempts to these general principles and let him judge whether or not he was within his rights.

Encourage self-evaluation in all types of activities.

Encourage any new suggestion the child may have which is in the right direction.

Some children who have been at home with mother most of their pre-school life may be homesick and bewildered when they enter school. The problem is largely one of building up their sense of security. Their attention should be directed outside of themselves as much as possible. Their life should be kept as simple as possible as too much activity and too many new things only increase their bewilderment. They also need to develop independence.

The Importance of Health

Health, of course, is of major importance for every phase of life and has much to do with the emotional balance of the small child. All parents should be encouraged to take their children to their family doctor before entering them in school. Many districts make a concerted effort to get this accomplished. Many places take a census each year or every other year from which a list is compiled of those who are eligible to enter school in the coming fall. Where this census is not available all the children in school may be asked to report any children they know of in the district who will be going to kindergarten the next fall. This list may then be divided up among mothers

in the P.T.A. who make home calls leaving a card to be taken to the physician which he will check and sign. The child is to bring it with him when he enters school. Any obvious health problems or difficulties which may be related to health problems should be talked over with the parents.

2. A CHILD NEEDS INDEPENDENCE

The second major need of the child is a growing independence. This has been touched on in the discussion of emotional stability but it is of sufficient importance to discuss as a separate factor. The kindergarten can do much toward increasing a child's independence both physically and mentally. Each time a child realizes that he "can do that for himself" it is just that much easier for him to do something else for himself.

Some of the things a child can learn to do for himself in kindergarten are:

- Take off and put on his own wraps.
- Take complete care of his toilet needs.
- Take responsibility for keeping his hands clean.
- Get out and put away his own materials.
- Decide for himself what to do during free play.
- Decide on games or songs when given the opportunity.
- Share information with the group when invited.

3. A CHILD NEEDS SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Social development has been discussed at some length under emotional stability. Aside from the disturbance to his emotional life which a lack of social

ient brings, a child can not make normal in school unless he has learned to work and in a group. He should be able to live naturally in a group. He should be able to work with plan with them, and to coöperate in group . He should be able to take advantage of instructions and enter into the work when the is talking to his group instead of just to himself. Helpful suggestions are contained in the section previously mentioned as well as in the following:

age the children to carry on constructive conversation which leads to dramatic play, group projects and group activity.

children to many types of materials which lend themselves to a variety of coöperative activities.

each child the opportunity to be a leader and follower.

provide for many small groups with different leaders and regrouping the children for various purposes.

At this age children only sense a group feeling and a group is very small.

where there is difficulty making contacts, pair the difficult child with one who makes friends easily but who does not overshadow the other child. As contacts become firmer, put him in a group of three, then four. In this way he may gradually become socially.

III

Developing Experience Readiness

As children enter kindergarten they will have a wide variety of backgrounds of experience. Some will be very rich, some very poor, some along one line, some along another. Groups in one locality will vary from groups in another, but individuals within the group will also vary.

Experience is such a vital thing. Everything we see and hear and feel is interpreted on the basis of our own experiences. Everything we do is done in light of our past experiences. We can understand only in terms of understanding already developed through our own experiences.

How are we to judge the adequacy of a child's experience? In the first place, we must take nothing for granted. We must not assume that this or that is so common that of course they are familiar with it. We must realize that many of these children have seldom if ever been out of their own neighborhood. At the age of five or six there is much that the child sees with his eyes that he does not comprehend with his mind and so it can form no part of his experience.

In order to judge a child's experiential background the teacher should first of all be familiar with the environment from which he comes. She should walk

over the territory of her school district if she does not already know it. Note the play opportunities and habits of that locale, the different types of stores, occupations, buildings, means of transportation with which the children have a chance to become familiar. She should go into the various homes and, among other purposes, she should note the opportunities for experience there, books, pictures, play equipment, relationship between child and parents, whether or not the parents make a point of helping the child to understand his environment. Then the teacher should be alert to cues in the child's conversation, whether it is rich in concepts or impoverished, whether he shows real familiarity and understanding of the things that are mentioned or is merely repeating parrot fashion what he has heard.

What types of experience does a child need to be ready for this job of learning to read? Broadly, the child needs to be familiar with and understand the necessary background of all concepts which will be dealt with in his group. What this consists of depends somewhat on the books, materials, and projects planned for the year. In checking some half dozen commonly used pre-primers we find these things with which the child should have a real familiarity, from first hand experience if possible. They all seem to be factors in everyone's life yet there is no doubt that many kindergarten and first grade children have very little if any experience with many of them.

one-family houses set in trees and lawn
a store for clothing, for toys
clothes on the line in the yard, clothes basket

a flower garden, watering
taking care of garden and lawn
what the country-side looks like
leaves falling in the autumn
a wading pool
bathing suits
birds, baby bird, bird nest
squirrels
cats
dogs
monkey
duck
tricycle
scooter
swing
slide
merry-go-round, horses
toy auto
toy train (electric)
toy boat
teddy bear
ball
tin soldier
home blackboard
doll
doll buggy
jumping rope
rolling a hoop
wheelbarrow
modeling clay
riding in a wagon
riding in a boat
riding in a train
riding in an airplane
a hangar
a packing box
letter

oatmeal, fruit, milk
colors
counting to three

Children may have opportunity in school to gain experience with many of these things, more than one ordinarily expects. Teachers should check all the books which are to be used in kindergarten and the beginning first grade for needed concepts and experience backgrounds. Then experiences should be provided, first hand if at all possible, to furnish these necessary backgrounds.

A common first grade unit of experience is built around problems of the home. The home is the kindergarten's first interest, and conversation about it may do much to broaden and clarify a child's concepts concerning home problems. Homes vary so tremendously in size, furnishings, people who are there, work done in them, the child's place in the home and the whole problem of family relationships that we must not take for granted that the home, at least, is a common element in the child's background.

Besides these obvious experiences, the child's background should be widened and enriched as much as possible. Anything in the world about him which is within his understanding may be made a vital part of his experience.

He needs the experience of hearing stories, telling stories, having stories read to him. He needs the experience of expressing his ideas and feelings in stories, in poems, in music, in rhythms, in modeling, in painting, in constructing. These are all real experiences. Through these real experiences he may have

many additional vicarious ones. It is here that the teacher must be particularly careful. Just talking about something may or may not give a child real understanding of it. He must have the concept built up vividly for him; it must live in his imagination and he should be able to act on it through imaginative activities. If he can not, then the vicarious experience has been no real experience at all for him, and can be of little or no value in interpreting further experience.

All activities should help the child to see relationships. He should see the various relationships between himself and the things, people, and activities about him. To a certain extent he can also see their relationship to each other at this stage.

Among the activities which help to furnish vital experiences for children are the following:

1. *Planned Trips and Excursions*

a. *Within the school*

To other school-rooms to see some particular thing, to the principal's office to learn its various functions, to the basement where the janitor can explain the heating and care of the building.

Out in the school yard to watch various stages in the growth of plants, to watch birds build their nests and teach the young birds to fly, to watch ants in an ant hill.

b. *To places within walking distance*

To watch workmen building a house.

To visit different stores or other commercial enterprises in the neighborhood in which the children are interested.

To notice the different kinds of homes, trees, birds.

- c. *To places where transportation is necessary*
To a farm to see farm animals, to see cows milked,
to see the farm people work and play.
- d. *To different locales*
To the woods, to the sea, lake or river shore, to the
town or city for rural children, to the country for city
children.
- e. *Miscellaneous trips*
To parks with a wide variety of play equipment.
To the zoo, to the airport, railway and bus stations.
To gardens, greenhouses, and seed companies.
To see pets and pet hospitals.
To rabbitry and chicken hatchery.
To the library, post-office, fire station.
To a garage, lumber yard or bakery.

An excursion should not be merely a day's holiday. It should be very carefully planned to fulfill a definite purpose. The proposed trip should come as a result of a recognized need on the part of the pupils for a solution to some problem, or to get necessary information. Then through discussion and planning the pupils should have in mind definite questions to have answered, and observations to make. The teacher should have made the trip previously so as to be familiar with the situation, make arrangements and be aware of possibilities. (This, of course, should not eliminate the unexpected and impromptu opportunities for valuable experiences which occasionally offer themselves).

The conduct on the trip should be discussed, planned and adhered to as closely as possible. When the objective is beyond walking distance a school or chartered bus is the most satisfactory means of transportation or parents could often coöperate

by using their cars. Tire conservation and gasoline rationing definitely handicapped the taking of longer trips. Under such circumstances, teachers relied more on films and other types of vicarious experience.

Principles of safety and courtesy are particularly important. The children's attention should be directed and their observation guided so that they will be certain to see what they came to see, and as much more as they can absorb.

Perhaps the most important part of an excursion is what happens afterward. There should be directed discussion, a going over of the questions they wanted answered, of the observations they wanted to make. Pertinent pictures, materials, and demonstrations should clinch and broaden the concepts and correct any that are wrong. A related vocabulary should be used freely so as to tie in with the experience. Dramatization and original stories and poems further develop concepts and enrich the experience. Give the child a chance to use some art media to illustrate his concepts. This may help the child to clarify or express his ideas and also gives the teacher a clue to what the child is thinking.

2. *Group Activities*

Real experience is by no means limited to phenomena outside the school house walls. The great bulk of experience which is under the direction of the school will take place within the school-room. This experience will be more adaptable, more under the control of the teacher, can be continued over a longer period, and may be better adjusted to the

particular needs of particular children. Some of the more valuable activities are these:

Bringing pets to school. Child may tell about them, their care, what they can do and can not do, their tricks and what they were like when they were little. The group may assume responsibility for their care while they are at school. Depending on the pet, these may be kept from a few hours to several weeks.

Watching the habits of birds, their fall migrations and spring returns, nesting habits and care of the young. This may be reported as children note interesting happenings. They can be on the lookout for evidences of such activity.

Developing a science corner in which they have cocoons, shells, cotton, wool, nests, polliwogs, and insects of various kinds both dead and alive.

Collecting shells, rocks, seeds, plants, nuts, leaves, or flowers. Some beginnings of analysis, classification and organization must be made of these collections if they are to have any particular value. This should not, however, become a burden to the children.

Caring for window boxes. The children may plant the seeds, transplant the seedlings and care for them and watch their development. They may plant bulbs, grow sweet potatoes and carrots in water. They may care for different types of house plants as cactus and ivy, or flowering plants such as begonias and geraniums. A real garden is even more valuable, where practicable.

Caring for an aquarium. If possible there should be a pair of gold fish so that they may lay eggs and the fish hatch out and develop. Or frogs' eggs may be

put in the water so the children may watch their hatching and development. In this case a frog should be brought in for awhile at least so the children may become familiar with the sort of creature which laid the eggs.

Carrying on some process as the making of butter, ice cream, or cement, or the washing, dying, spinning, and weaving of wool. These activities must be carried on in such a way that the resulting concepts are accurate. Children must realize either through excursions or discussion that, while they saw the essentials of the various processes, the actual commercial production is considerably different, and it is all done on a much larger scale, with mechanical aids.

Carrying on the regular activities of home life, such as cooking, cleaning, laundering, and so forth, are excellent.

Constructing something, either as a toy model or as a usable article. This construction may supplement trips, as the making of airplanes from blocks or crates after visiting the airport, or the modeling of toy farm animals and equipment after visiting a farm. This may occupy an hour or a week, or in certain instances be a part of a long term unit. Or the construction may furnish vital vicarious experience, when the real experience is impractical or impossible. In either case the construction should develop accurate concepts.¹ The amount of detail may be varied according to the ability of the child and time involved. But the essential elements in the thing constructed must be there.

¹ J. Murray Lee and Dorris May Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940), pp. 200-201.

An airplane must have wings, a propeller, a body, and a rudder on the tail. A boat must float in water. In other words this construction must be used to clear up and broaden concepts and not confuse them. Words and expressions related to the things constructed should be used so they will become an integral part of the experience. In general, they should be large enough so the child can keep an upright position while working on them. Large construction plays an important part in coördinating body movements. Many slow-learning readers do not coördinate well and we give them large construction activities to develop that power.

If the object constructed pretends to be out of the toy model class, it must stick fairly closely to reality, be made because the children feel it would solve a problem or fulfill a purpose of their own, and make clearer certain important concepts. If they have the promise of a hen and a setting of eggs, they may want to make a nest and hen coop for her. They will want to find out the necessary requirements and then make something which will actually be usable. Further understanding will be brought out as the children evaluate their own work during the process of construction.

There is another type of construction that should be mentioned here. It is that of using kindergarten blocks for forming the outlines of a home, a store or something of the sort. This is all right, provided the thing represented is perfectly familiar to the children. Where the children all live in private one-family houses there needs to be little outside aid to

help the child imagine a home. On the other hand, children in tenement district apartments would have little understanding of the same situation. In any case, many concepts can be brought out which are often neglected, such as the reason for the relative size of the rooms, their relative positions, the things essential for each, the things that are done in each. This type of project may be used as a quick means of showing relationships where the learning is quickly secured and does not require greater construction.

3. *Discussions*

Discussion should play a large part in developing reading readiness, for it may have many values. First, it is largely through discussion that the teacher is able to locate both the general and the specific needs of her pupils. A child shows wide experience or lack of it through his conversation. He may show emotional stability, independence, social development, language ability or the lack of any or all of these through discussion. The teacher should be ever alert to gather all she can from what the child says. This matter will be taken up later in a discussion of language development, but here we shall consider it as a factor of experience.

Discussion is a means of clinching real experience. It may clarify concepts and bring out points noticed but forgotten. Discussion can relate past experience to the present situation. It can recall and revivify past experience and reinterpret it in relation to present experience. A child may tell of his own experiences which may or may not have been duplicated by mem-

bers of the group. In doing this he may get added meaning from his experience as he interprets it for the group, and he enriches the experience of the others vicariously.

Here are some specific suggestions for making use of discussion in giving a background of experience:

Provide daily discussion periods to talk over interesting things seen and done.

Capitalize on daily happenings which may or may not be planned for, but which offer learning values.

Help children organize their experiences.

Broaden children's experiences by sharing those of other members of the group and by participating in their conversation and exchanging ideas.

As children discuss their experiences, point out or help them recognize the connection of past experiences with the present one.

Discuss what they did that was new today and what was carried over from previous experiences.

Help children keep to the subject under discussion. In planning an evaluation period, list statements that are relevant to the problem at hand. Appreciate other contributions, but point out that we wish to finish the given problem first. Bring out new ideas in planning by asking, "How could we make this better?" "What do we need that no one has thought of?"

4. *Story Telling*

Telling stories or reading them to children is the most commonly mentioned source of vicarious experience. It is also valuable from other points of view, such as interesting children in books, developing attention span and developing a feeling for logical continuity of events. Stories should be carefully selected on several bases:

They should be at the comprehension level of the children.

They should be free from ideas, words and actions which we do not want to suggest to children.

They should be rich in experiential material in a setting with the core of which the children are already familiar.

Some at least should lend themselves to retelling or dramatizing by the children in whole or in part.

There should be a great variety in types and settings of stories.

Both realistic and fanciful stories should be included, but the difference should be very definitely pointed out and children should themselves be able to recognize either type in most cases.

This story telling should encourage children to tell stories of their own, either repeating those heard or making up original ones.

5. *Dramatization*

Dramatization goes hand in hand with story telling but should not be limited to it. Children enjoy playing the stories they like but they also like to play over again various experiences they have had. Both are valuable, but as a means of enriching experience the latter may have a little more value. Incidents in trips and excursions may be lived over again, bringing in related material and making the child conscious of much he had previously missed. As we know, a situation may only furnish experience to a child when that child reacts to the situation. The more completely he reacts, the broader and richer the experience. Dramatization and dramatic play then should furnish further opportunities for children to

react to certain situations. It is also a valuable means of making vicarious experience more vivid and real.

6. *Music*

Music may enrich the child's emotional experience as well as adding to his familiarity with the music itself. The piano, the phonograph, the radio as well as the rhythm bands all have their contribution to make. As far as reading readiness is concerned the main value in music is the emotional one. If the child loses himself in the rhythm and melody of music, he becomes less self-conscious, more a part of the group, better adjusted. Some children may make their first contribution to the group by their expression through rhythm and music. Children too shy to talk may sing with the group, play rhythmic games and eventually express their own feelings through these media.

7. *Visual Materials*

This classification is broad and most of these materials are a regular part of the school equipment. However, many of them may be used to better advantage and others may be added.

The most common, other than objects, of course, are pictures. These include prints, photographs, original drawings, magazine advertisements, slides, stereographs, strip film, motion pictures and many others. Each of these has some particular advantage and should be used to fulfill its own special purpose. Art prints have the advantage of having true art values and give a basis for art appreciation as well as

for experience. Photographs are of necessity true to life and have usually been taken to illustrate some particular point, some article or process or situation. All still pictures may be studied at length and special points discussed. Motion pictures show action, a total process in proper perspective. Pictures of various types should be used profusely as they are the closest thing to the objects themselves and, except for the actual object, most easily understood and appreciated by children. Some specific suggestions are:

Show pictures which answer definite questions or solve definite problems which the children have.

Help the children to use these pictures to find the answers to these problems.

Choose a few good pictures to be carefully studied rather than many to be only casually observed.

Select pictures which make their point clearly without too much extraneous detail to distract from the significant facts.

Show enough pictures to give the child a balanced understanding and familiarity, but not so many as to be confusing.

Pictures which pretend to portray any phase of real life must be authentic. Art productions in which liberties have been taken with reality should not be used. Where pictures which do not pretend to deal with realities are used, as pictures of brownies, fairies, and the like, children should be thoroughly aware of the imaginative nature of the pictures.

Little children enjoy best those pictures which are truest to life, natural rather than conventional in design, in natural colors, rather than in two colors or black and white.

All pictures should be discussed so as to insure each

terial to concepts and understandings he already has in order to interpret it and be able to use this new information in later experiences.

Another type of visual material is that in collections and exhibitions in the home, public museums, and schools. Children may collect seeds, plants, flowers, leaves, rocks and many other things. Children in other rooms of the school will be delighted to show and explain their various collections which may be of interest and value to the younger children. Occasionally there will be a home that has one or more interesting objects or a collection which is valuable in making more real some phase of the child's experience. Certain exhibits in public museums may also be used. When this is done the teacher must resist the temptation of wanting the children to see all the collections in the museum in one visit. She should stick very largely to the single exhibit for which she has prepared the children, giving the children only a glimpse of the rest so as to give them the idea that there are many, many other interesting things there.

Collections of things such as pictures should be an integral part of the progressing program, fill a definite need or purpose and should be prepared for, utilized, and their contribution evaluated.

A collection is not just a number of things arranged together in the same place. There must be criteria of selection and classification of which the children should be aware.

IV

Developing Readiness of Related Abilities

1. A CHILD NEEDS TO DEVELOP LANGUAGE ABILITY

Language should be thought of as a means of communication. Communication necessitates at least two people, one to express an idea or thought, the other to receive and interpret it. It is only when this process is complete that communication has taken place. Signs and symbols were early developed by every primitive people to speed up and make easier this process. Language has been developed as the most adequate and rapid means for communication, and this purpose should be kept uppermost in the minds of teachers.

We must emphasize this "two-way" concept. Where there is speaking, there must also be listening to complete the process. When there are printed symbols there must also be interpretation of them, if they are to be of value. Writing and reading are outgrowths of this. At the beginning reading-readiness level, however, there is little "reading" and "writing" as such, except possibly the child's own name. There are, however, other symbols and the interpretation of them which are very important here. It is through

these that children must get the idea that these are symbols which have a consistent meaning and one which they themselves can interpret. First of all there are pictures, and the extent to which a child can interpret the meaning put into the picture by the artist is a very important indication of this stage of development in reading readiness.¹ When pictures are considered as symbols they constitute quite a variety. There is a scene, a single activity, or only a single item. Then comes the conventionalized form of an item as the triangle on a vertical line to represent a tree or stick men. Each of these types represents a particular difficulty in recognition of symbols, their meaning and interpretation.

Talking and listening are important phases of this readiness period. There has always been emphasis on helping a child to express himself. This help has too often aimed at formally correct construction, rather than at clearness of thought. If a child works to express his idea so that it may be clearly understood, the construction is likely to be adequate. The reverse of this is not necessarily true.

The art of listening is more apt to be neglected. We often find children who, for one reason or another, have not learned to listen adequately. We have taken listening for granted. We have assumed that if something is said and the other person present has normal hearing that communication has taken place. This cannot be assumed to be true. Listening is a skill which needs as careful developing as any of the

¹ The value in making and interpreting pictures is further discussed on pages 41-43.

other skills in the language process. Understanding and interpretation should be considered an integral part of listening. Progress is difficult to evaluate, but training should be definitely provided all through the child's school life.²

Understanding is based on some type of previous experience. A child uses words, expressions, and correct constructions only after he has become familiar with them in the spoken language which he has heard. He may try out new words but they do not become a part of his vocabulary until he has connected them with his experiential background, has had opportunity to hear them, and incentive to use them again and again. Neither can he be expected to read words, expressions and constructions with understanding and facility unless they are already very much a part of his own meaningful spoken language. For instance, the first book of one series shows a picture of streamlined brightly-colored trains with the sentence "Big trains to ride!" Many children have never seen a train. Many more have never ridden on one, nor has any member of their family ridden on one. And relatively few indeed have seen red or blue streamlined trains. If the teacher has not built up a real or vicarious experience for these children, this story will be rather meaningless and certainly much more difficult to read.

We are apt to think of language problems as being largely confined to children living in homes where a foreign language is spoken. Of course, this is a defi-

² Some suggestions for such training are given on pages 45-46 and 52-53.

nite problem, but it is usually recognized and something is done about it. Too often we are not conscious of the children from uneducated homes, those who have had few companions to talk with, either children or adults; those who have learned to talk only in words or phrases, or with incorrect usage or construction. To these, even the material in the preprimers may sound unfamiliar since it is expressed in complete sentences, grammatically correct and with rather exact vocabularies. This is entirely aside from the problem of unfamiliar subject matter which is another important language problem. We cannot stress too much the fact that correct expression needs to be developed so that the child will not only use it in certain directed or planned situations but that it will become habitual so that he may talk well without conscious attention to it.

Story telling should be a large part of the language development program. There should be stories told by the teacher, read from books, listened to on records, or on the radio if available. Children should tell stories and listen to those told by other children. They should tell stories they have heard at school or at home, stories they have made up, or stories out of their own experience. The emphasis should be on the telling of it clearly enough so the listeners can understand and get the point of the story. Children can learn to organize their stories or accounts in some kind of order. They can learn to maintain a logical sequence, recognize such a sequence, and then keep it in mind so as to tell the story in that order.

Children should tell stories from pictures. The first

stage will probably be enumeration of the objects seen in the picture. Then there will be description of the situation pictured. The third step which is the aim of this particular phase is interpretation of a story from the picture. Children will develop along these lines a great deal on the basis of mental maturity but experience in talking about pictures and listening to the stories of other more mature children will speed up this development in many cases. After children learn to tell a story from a single picture they should then be able to tell stories from two or more pictures in sequence. They develop a feeling of sequence in story telling. They also develop rational thinking and problem solving. "Here we have this situation. What must have happened to have the situation presented by the second picture?"

Story telling from all these various sources and of all these various types should occupy a large part of the work of the reading-readiness period.

Hand in hand with this experience in interpreting pictures should go the experience of telling a story by means of pictures. Many of the art media may be used, coloring, painting, drawing, cutting and pasting, modeling and others. After the children have an experience of some sort, the natural reaction is to "tell about it" through making pictures if the media are available. It gives them another means of expression, develops their thinking about the subject and is their first means of putting an idea or experience in objective form which may be "read back" by others.

Teachers must be careful of the "reading back"

process. It is usually best to ask the child himself to relate what his picture tells about. He must also be given some assurance that he has gotten his idea over to others. It must be recognized that a great deal of the child's art work at this time is purely exploratory on his part. Instead of teacher criticism of ineffective results, her recognition of whatever of value the child has been able to do gives him needed encouragement and satisfaction as well as steers him along desirable lines.

The child often when making a picture has much more in mind than shows in the finished product. He should be given opportunity to tell his story from his picture. This process may work in either direction or in both and is an excellent procedure. He may work to tell his story to the group and then make a picture of it or make his picture first and then tell the story. Thought development can often be noticed when the child tells his story, makes his picture, and then retells the story from the picture.

Another problem in language development that is often overlooked is the variety of meanings which may be attached to a certain word and which must be interpreted by the remainder of the sentence. Even in pre-primers we find "old" used as "six years old" and "good old Winky," baby as a name "Baby" and "baby bird," up as "wake up," "get up," "look up" (from play), "go up" and many others. Such examples increase enormously in primers and first readers. It is not unusual at all to find first graders talking and reading of *catch* with these various meanings, "I will catch you," "catch a ball," "catch a

train," "catch cold," "catch up," "catch your clothes" (on a nail), "catch his eye," "the sticks catch fire." If the child is familiar enough with each of these phrases to use it unconsciously in his own speech, they caused no difficulty. However, it is easy to see the confusion that might result if he tried to apply any of the other meanings in the phrase "catch his eye," for example.

The solution, in general, is to expose the child to a wide variety of situations and then give him opportunity to *talk* about them a great deal. Meanwhile the teacher must be aware of possible confusion in what both she and the other children say. She must be alert to correct any misunderstanding and errors in the child's speech. However, she should not break into the middle of a child's story to make some grammatical correction. These may be brought to the child's attention after the story has been told and commented on. Corrections may be made in casual conversation, in questions which the children ask, and answers they give, where the interest in the subject of discussion is not at too high a pitch. When the child is very much involved in what he is saying it is decidedly disturbing emotionally to have to stop and make a grammatical correction. Also he will probably not remember it anyway as his attention is all on what he is saying, not on how he is saying it. Some specific suggestions in the developing of this language ability are:

Develop vocabulary in concrete situations first whenever possible.

Use words in informal talks so as to help the child to

become familiar with these words and their meanings in abstract situations.

Explain, discuss, and illustrate the meanings of words by picture and story.

Call the attention of the children to synonyms, antonyms, prefixes and suffixes of familiar words in a very elementary and casual way.

Have children express a given idea in a variety of ways, and evaluate them as to the most adequate and most original.

Have the children make picture charts classified according to subject as farm animals, animals in the zoo, furniture, toys, fruits, vegetables, numbers, colors, things mother does, things father does, things they do, a story of their day, and so forth.

Make a game for prepositions. For example, have the children put an object in, on, under, beside, below, above, or behind the box.³

Make a game for adverbs. Have the children walk quickly, slowly, sadly, quietly, noisily, happily, and so forth.³

Make a game for verbs. Have the children walk, run, hop, work, play, and so on. Question the children: What can a boy, a girl, a mother, a father, a dog, or a tiger do?³

Make a game for adjectives. Find a number of different balls or other objects. Ask the children to identify the blue, red, big, little, striped, smooth, hard, or soft ball. Have them pretend they are big, little, brave, happy, unhappy, kind, old or young. Let them describe objects, each other, their clothes and other items in their environment.³

Assist visualization from the spoken work by games such as,

³ These items are from Marion Monroe; "A Program to Develop Reading Readiness in Grade I," *Seventeenth Yearbook, Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, 1938, p. 281.

I am thinking of something in this room:

It is green.

It has four legs.

We sit on it.

(The above games are particularly valuable in developing good listening.)

Have children tell a story from a picture.

Show an interesting picture or film and have children tell their various ideas about what they have seen.

Encourage the children to play and carry on normal activities and conversation by the presence of toys.

Have the children relate their own personal experiences out of school.

Have children express their own ideas and the ideas of others by means of crayons and paints, bodily movement, toy instruments, and so forth. This often leads to better oral expression.

Help children to interpret dramatically their own experiences, stories, rhymes, songs and poems.

Take advantage of any interest to express thoughts dramatically, graphically, manipulatively or rhythmically. It increases the basis for language expression and facilitates it.

Read and tell children stories. Some of these stories should be suitable for retelling by the children. Children should all have an opportunity to retell stories they have heard. Long stories may be told by several children, one going on where another leaves off.

Have the children carry on telephone conversations over play telephones and give radio programs over toy radios.

Compose group letters, stories, and so forth. If any child does not express himself in complete thought units, ask leading questions which will result in complete thought expression.

Songs and games help to develop language skills.

Encourage constructive criticism of the language of themselves and others. Remember that children are interested in their own expressions, for they want to be understood.

Set a good example, in clearness of diction, variety of expression, correctness of grammar, and adequacy and accuracy of expression of ideas.

Have the children discuss the plans for the day or the period.

Make the most of every opportunity through the day to let the children talk with a purpose. Wherever feasible let the children talk instead of the teacher. It is the children who need the experience.

2. A CHILD NEEDS GOOD ARTICULATION

A special and separate problem of language ability is articulation. It may or may not have some relation to the adequacy with which the child may express himself. His poor articulation is a handicap in making himself understood and will become more of a handicap when he starts reading. He may become self-conscious over his articulatory inabilities and avoid speaking when possible. This, of course, is only a further hindrance because he does not get the practice he needs, and this inability very definitely affects his social adjustment which in turn will affect his reading.

Speech is a developing ability and it is often a problem to know when this development is normal but slow, or definitely abnormal. Davis ⁴ gives the re-

⁴ Irene Poole Davis, "The Speech Aspects of Reading Readiness," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals Seventeenth Yearbook*, Vol. XVII, No. 7 (July 1938), p. 283. A discussion of this point by Dr. West is given on pp. 85-87.

sults of research which help in solving this problem. She says,

Consonant sounds develop in the speech of otherwise "normal" children in a well-ordered sequence. Other factors being usual, all children have developed the ability to articulate consonant sounds in words at the following ages (the letters represent sounds, not spelling names):

3.5 years: *b, p, m, w*, and *h*

4.5 years: *d, t, n, g, k, ng*, and *y*

5.5 years: *f*, and *v, z*, and *s*

6.5 years: *zh, sh, l, th* as in *then*, and *th* as in *thin*

8.0 years: *z, s, r*, and *wh*

Many children develop these sounds much earlier than the ages indicated, but not all children do so. These ages are the latest that can be considered usual for establishment of the consonant sounds in speech. The sounds of *z* and *s* are listed twice in the sequence because they appear consistently at four or five years of age, and then become distorted in a lisp when dentition causes a spacing between the teeth that makes normal production of the sibilant qualities of these sounds almost impossible. Most children correct this lisp without adult help after permanent dentition has appeared.

Davis goes on to say that some children may be behind this schedule but still be considered normal if there is progress which follows this pattern. We classify as speech defectives only those who are making no progress or progress along lines that are not characteristic of normal development. These speech defectives, of course, need the help of a specialist, and whenever possible the teacher should see that he has such help. Any substitutions or omissions which are not ordinarily found in the usual baby talk should

be referred to a specialist for diagnosis and necessary correction.

There are a number of things which a teacher may do in the regular work of the school-room to improve the articulation and hasten its development. The first is to help the child to understand how the sounds should be made. The average child does this naturally and without conscious effort. But where development is delayed, help of this kind can be of great assistance. Many teachers are themselves unaware of just how various sounds are made and for their assistance and the ready reference of all we are reproducing this information. These of course are sounds and not spelling names. They may be divided into three consonant groups.⁵

a. The Breathed Consonants

The first group is known as *breathed consonants*, because the *entire* sound is made by friction, squeezing, or stoppage of the breath in some part of the mouth. To put it another way, neither the vocal cords nor the nasal passages are used when these consonants are spoken; only the mouth is used.

b. The Voiced Consonants

The second group is known as *voiced consonants* because the vocal cords are used in making them. To illustrate how the vocal cords are used, let us take twin consonants, one breathed and one voiced. Hold

⁵ The following discussion has been adapted from William Norwood Briggance, *Your Everyday Speech* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937), pp. 64-67.

the tips of your fingers on the voice box (Adam's apple) and pronounce the word *kill*. Make the *k* sound loud and sustained. You will feel no vibration whatever as *k* is uttered, for it is a breathed consonant, made only by the breath, and it does not cause the voice box to vibrate.

Now hold the tips of the fingers on the voice box and pronounce the word *gill*, making the hard *g* sound loud and sustained. You will feel a distinct vibration while sounding the *g*, for it is a voiced consonant. These two words, *kill* and *gill*, sound exactly alike except that the vocal cords are silent on *k* and are sounded on *g*. These two consonants are twins. The position of the tongue for each is exactly the same. The only difference is that one is made with the breath alone and the other adds the vocal cords. There are eight other sets of twins in the consonant group.

c. *The Nasals*

The last group of consonants is the *nasals*. They are easy to identify, for all of them are sounded through the nose instead of the mouth. They also use the vocal cords.

A SYSTEMATIC CHART OF CONSONANT SOUNDS

HOW THE SOUNDS ARE MADE	BREATHED	VOICED	NASAL
Lips closed, then exploded open	<i>p</i> (pin)	<i>b</i> (bin)	<i>m</i> (men)
Tongue tip against upper teeth ridge then suddenly released	<i>t</i> (time)	<i>d</i> (dime)	<i>n</i> (nine)

A SYSTEMATIC CHART OF CONSONANT SOUNDS

HOW THE SOUNDS ARE MADE	BREATHED	VOICED	NASAL
Back of tongue against palate, then suddenly released	<i>h</i> (kill)	<i>g</i> (gill)	<i>ng</i> (ring)
Sides of tongue against upper teeth, tip pointed and pressed against lower teeth	<i>s</i> (sip)	<i>z</i> (zip)	
Sides of tongue against upper teeth, tip spread touching lower teeth, lips protruding	<i>sh</i> (sure)	<i>zh</i> (azure)	
Lower lip lightly touch- ing upper teeth	<i>f</i> (few)	<i>v</i> (view)	
Broad tip of tongue lightly touching upper teeth	<i>th</i> (thin)	<i>th</i> (then)	
Lips rounded, tongue tense	<i>wh</i> (which)	<i>w</i> (witch)	
Tongue flat, lips open, breath out	<i>h</i> (hat)		
Tongue tip tilted slightly backward and against or near upper gum		<i>r</i> (road)	
Tongue set as though to say <i>e</i> , then relaxed and lowered as the sound is made		<i>y</i> (yes)	
Tongue tip against up- per gum, sound pass- ing around both sides of tongue		<i>l</i> (low)	

DOUBLE CONSONANTS

Tongue set for <i>sh</i> (or its twin <i>zh</i>), then <i>t</i> (or <i>d</i>) is sounded first	<i>t-sh</i> (church) <i>d-zh</i> (judge) (George)
--	--

The teacher should use these with the child only when necessary so as not to make him more self-conscious than can be helped. In addition the teacher must set a good example. She must enunciate clearly and accurately without slurring. She must speak distinctly enough so there is no doubt in the pupil's mind as to what she has said. She must particularly watch such common errors as *wen* for *when*, *wat* for *what*, etc., and the dropping of the final *g* in words ending in *ing* as *runnin'*, *goin'*, etc.

Correct mispronunciations in children which are due to carelessness or learning from incorrect example and not those due merely to the stage of development, as *cetch* for *catch*, *jist* for *just*, *becuz* for *because*, etc.

Help children to listen carefully to new words or to the word with which they have difficulty.

Show the child the correct position of the tongue and lips to make the desired sound.

Give exercises in relaxation of speech organs, lips and tongue.^o Yawning is an excellent speech activity and is relaxing. Teachers may make a "Sleepy Time Book." Cats, dogs, babies, and so forth, are then pasted in the book. These are accompanied by poems which suit the picture. The children yawn with the animals and babies as the poems are read.

Give exercises for correct breathing.

Play phonetic games which call for use of certain needed consonants.

Have the child say words very slowly. Have the

^o Sarah T. Barrows and Katherine H. Hall, *Games and Jingles for Speech Development* (Boston, Mass.: Expression Company, 1936).

child listen to the teacher or other children saying words very slowly (each sound separately). Then, see if the child can recognize the words. Finally, have him say them rapidly.

Encourage the imitation of sounds. Combine this with rhythmic interpretations.

Use many simple, suitable poems for enjoyment which call for needed sounds.

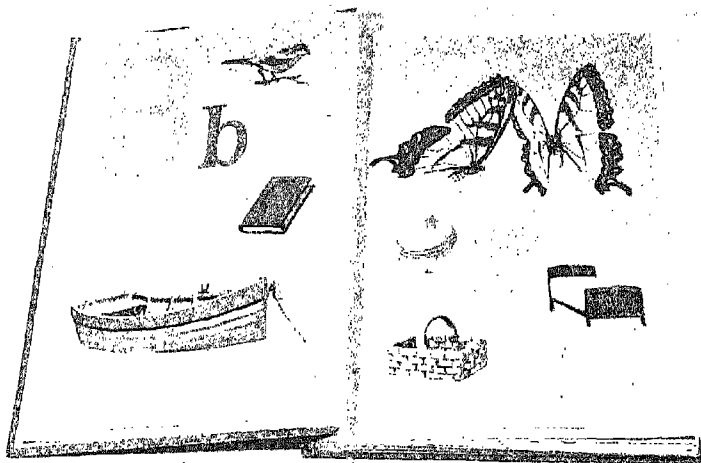
Make speech or alphabet booklets, pictures that illustrate certain sounds, *H—hat, hen, head, house*, etc.

Interesting picture books can be made which delight children and aid in the development of this skill. Pictures 1 and 2 illustrate how attractive and simple the books are. They may be made very interesting and colorful. Care must be taken to keep pictures beginning with single letter sounds separate from those beginning with blends. Children name the articles on the page carefully and distinctly. The teacher listens to hear whether the sounds are correctly made.

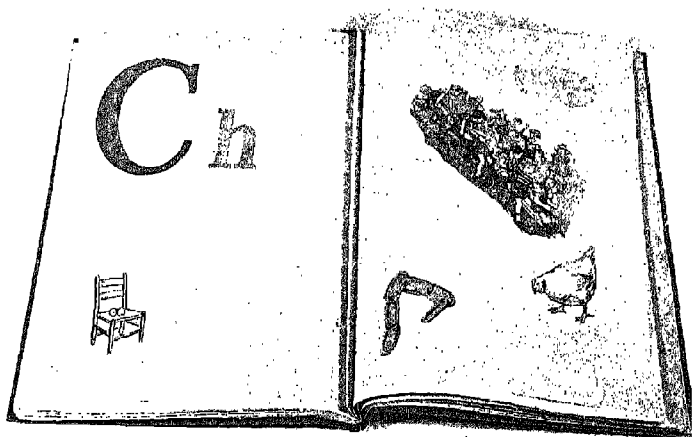
3. A CHILD NEEDS TO INCREASE HIS VISUAL ABILITIES

In kindergarten, children's eyes are still somewhat undeveloped and largely untrained. They can look at the same place or picture as an adult, and, while they see, physically, the same things, they perceive only partially and thus often inaccurately. They must learn through experience to interpret more and more of what is focused on the retina of the eye. It may help to think of "seeing" as made up of three phases,

the physical phase, the physiological phase and the psychological phase. The physical phase consists of the light rays striking the retina. This sets up a physiological stimulus and the second phase consists of the carrying of this stimulus back to the occipital lobes. Then the third phase is the one with which we as teachers are most concerned. It is very complex and capable of almost unlimited development. It is here the child learns to notice what he sees. He begins to interpret it in relation to himself or to other known factors. But he has to learn to which of all the hundreds of physiological stimuli which are physically set up, he should give his attention. Because we have our attention focused on the shape and form of a symbol we call a word is no reason the child has, even if he is looking at it. He may be seeing the smooth whiteness of the paper or the blackness of the print or the contrast of the two or the similarities rather than the differences in words, straightness of the line of print, or any number of other things. He must learn which are the essential cues to watch for. Some children "catch on" very quickly but others could be saved much time and trouble by help here. With such help they learn to see more adequately, and thus more accurately, and can better recognize smaller and smaller differences between the things they see. It is this experience and training which the kindergarten primary can give which will increase the child's readiness to read. Wherever there seems to be any abnormal difficulty, the child should be reported for a complete eye examination.



FIGS. 1 and 2. Speech-alphabet books. All pictured articles on facing pages begin with the same sound.



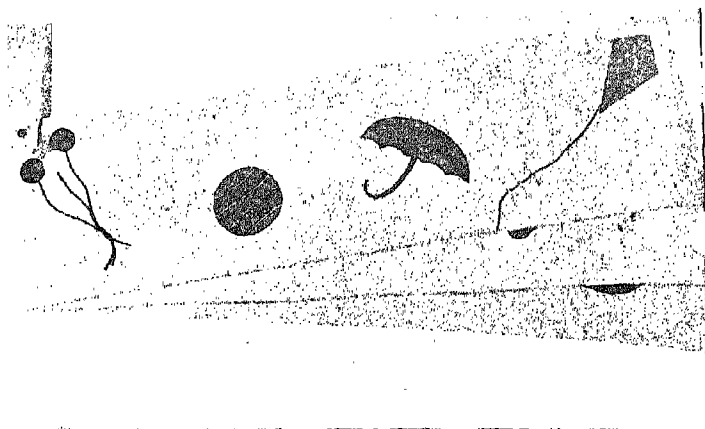
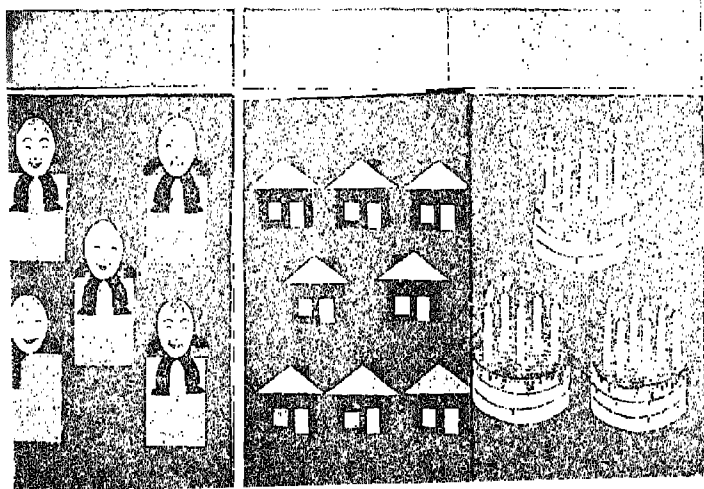


FIG. 3. How many can you remember?

FIG. 4. Which one is different?



Games to Aid Visual Ability

There are many color games which are among the first in aiding visual ability. Among them are:

COLOR GAMES

Musical Chairs. Place a different colored piece of paper under each chair. The "extra" child calls a color. The child sitting on the chair with that color under it, stands and starts skipping. When all colors are skipping, the music stops. Each time the child has a different color, so he must know all the color names.

Color Game. (1.) The children are seated in a circle. One child closes his eyes while the teacher holds up a colored yarn ball for the rest of the class to see. She pins this ball on some child's back who remains standing in the circle. The first child now opens his eyes and tries to get around so as to see the ball pinned on the second child's back. The group learns self-control, for they are all in on the secret but must not tell. When the child sees the color he must tell its name.

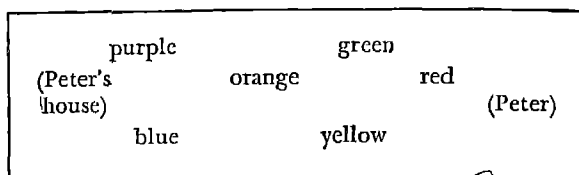
Color Game. (2.) Materials used:

Sucker sticks

Covered milk bottle tops

Make tops of various colors. One child spins his top and calls the name of some child. The child called must name the color of the top before it stops spinning. Later the second child runs to the chalk rail where word cards are and takes up the correct color card.

Color Game. (3.) Materials: 3 cotton rabbits
a large board with colored
circles pasted on so:



Once upon a time there was a mother rabbit and she had two babies. This day mother rabbit was very busy so she sent her babies out doors to play telling them to stay near by. Cotton tail did just as his mother asked him to but Peter, who was very naughty, ran away—way down here [*place him at far end of board*]. After a while he decides to go home but soon finds he is lost. Finally a friendly bird says, "Go just the way I tell you, and you will soon be home." [*The teacher holds up a red card and, later in the year, the word red. Bunny hops on red. Then the teacher holds up green—yellow—orange—blue—and at last purple.*] Peter then sees his house and is safe at home once more, so he thanks the little bird and runs to find his mother.

Color Game. (4.) Materials used: pint ice cream cartons with colored band pasted on (Later remove band and replace with name of color.)

Child rolls a ball and must name the color of the carton the ball touches.

OBSERVATIONAL GAMES

Play such games as horseshoes, peg games, nine pins, bounce ball, and so forth, to help quick focusing of the eye.

Have the children find new pictures, books or objects in the room.

Play games with objects: rearranging objects while the eyes are closed, then tell what was moved.

Place several familiar objects on a table and cover them. Remove the cover for a few seconds while the children look. Replace the cover and as the children try to name as many of the objects as they can remember, gradually increase the number of objects used as the children are able to remember most of them.

Do the same thing, but take one of the objects away and rearrange the others after the children have seen them. Then uncover them again and see if the children can identify the one that is missing.

Playing store games with different objects on various occasions gives training in observation, memory, and language. The children seat themselves in a circle. Objects are placed in the center (the store). One child (the storekeeper) names the objects and then goes out of sight (to the bank). While he is gone one or more objects are sold by the clerk. The storekeeper then returns and tells what has been sold. The game may also be played by changing objects from one position to another, trading places, and so forth.

Have children name all the things they can see in a picture.

Show a picture; take it away and see how many things can be remembered.

Interesting games are easily made of strips of tag board. Figure 3 illustrates one which would be used for memory recall. The children are supplied with large pieces of paper and large crayons. The simple picture strip is held up for about thirty seconds and then removed. The class then draws all the things they remember. The game also could be played by having pupils name the object which is not related to the others in the picture.

MATCHING GAMES

Read very short stories to the class. Have large pictures without too much detail to show the class. Match the pictures with the stories.

See similarities in designs, shapes, colors, in pictures, or in various materials or objects with which they are working.

See likenesses and differences in a group of pictures. Pictures were secured from a large book made by a teacher for helping children see likenesses and differences. The book is colorful and entertaining. Much free conversation may develop around the pictures on the pages. (See illustration 4.)

Play various matching games, developing the progressive symbolization of ideas:

Choose one or two objects or shapes that match a third example.

Match pictures with objects.

Match pictures with pictures.

Match colors.

Match like designs among other dissimilar ones.

Match like designs among other similar ones.

Match the child's own name with a card which he knows has his name.

Match labels around the room.

Match (but not recognize) words in picture books which he uses.

Make two pictures containing the same objects, but have them in different positions. One child points to an object in picture number one and the second child must indicate where that same object is in picture number two.

Pictures of mother, father, doll, baby, girl, and so forth, are pasted on a sheet of paper with the word written below the picture. The same words are written on

loose slips of paper and can be matched to the words under the pictures.

All these matching games may be played with the original object at first visible and then covered to develop visual memory.

OTHER GAMES

Use colored blocks for manipulation of simple design. The teacher may provide the design.

Show a simple design and then take it away. See if the children can reproduce it.

Use form boards. These are boards in which three or more holes of different shapes have been cut. Pieces to fit these holes are to be fitted in by the children. The time taken to complete it and the number of false moves may be counted.

Puzzles are excellent, if well chosen. They may be made from pictures or pages from books which are stiff enough, or they may be pasted on cardboard. They should be in bright colors, the subject matter interesting, and the size good. These are cut into sixteen pieces in distinctive forms and each puzzle is painted a different color on the back. If a piece has been put in a wrong box the *child* can find the lost piece.

Describe some person or object. Start with general characteristics and keep adding details until the child can visualize it well enough to identify it.

Care of the Eyes

There are certain precautions to be taken and adjustments to be made which will do much toward protecting the vision of the children. In a situation where considerable use of the eyes is demanded it is only right that the conditions should be as favorable as possible. Some of the more important have been summarized.

Suggestions on the hygiene of reading: ⁷

1. Children should be placed as nearly as possible in front of reading charts, blackboards, etc., with such material on a level with their eyes. Arrangements in half circles for this type of work is not advantageous because only the pupils seated in the center have a direct view and because some of the children may have light from the windows within their range of vision. Short, straight rows are better.

2. There should be at least 10 foot candles of light upon any working surface. Natural lighting is best, but artificial illumination should be available when the natural lighting is insufficient.

3. Light should come from only one direction, the left rear. Each child should be turned so that the shadow of his body does not fall upon his work and also so that no window is within his range of vision.

4. Shades and white spaces in the room should be adjusted to make maximum use of sunlight without glare.

5. Avoid glare at all times. Inspect blackboards and chart cards from various positions in the room to prevent the need for any child working in glare.

6. All woodwork in school rooms, particularly desk tops, should be finished with a dull finish. Paper used both in books and as work material, should be dull.

7. Material with large type should be provided. All hand-made charts should be made with clear, black lettering and with plenty of space between lines. The generous use of charts before the use of books is recommended.

8. There should be an abundance of eye-rest material such as clay, plasticine, and paper cutting materials.

9. Guide the child toward habits of concentrated effort, under properly controlled conditions, with frequent rest periods.

⁷ Madison Public Schools, *A Coöperative Study of Reading Readiness* (Madison, Wisconsin, 1937), p. 38.

4. A CHILD NEEDS TO IMPROVE HIS AUDITORY ABILITIES

Just as the young child has not learned to see adequately, neither has he learned to hear adequately. Try saying a new and rather complicated word to a kindergartener and have him repeat it. Usually he will need several repetitions of it before he has "heard" it at all so he can say it. It is not a question of articulation but of being able to take in many new sounds and remember them. It is related closely to this problem of listening which was discussed on pages 39-40. This ability to hear understandingly increases with practice and experience.

Accurate hearing is just as necessary for accurate reading as accurate seeing is. Each child's hearing should have some sort of check, if only by that of a watch ticking. Many cases of inattention and dullness turn out to be nothing but partial deafness. Most cases of hearing defect are of this mild type or of deafness in one ear only. Thus, they are not readily recognized, but it is of greatest importance that these children should be identified and given every advantage of attention and seating that can be arranged. There are certain activities which help to develop the hearing of all children.

Mother Cat and Her Three Babies

Once upon a time there was a mother cat and she had 3 babies. One day they all curled up in the sunshine and went fast asleep. After a time the babies awakened and decided to play a joke on their mother, so they all ran away, each one hiding in a different place. After a while

the mother cat wakes up. She looks all around but can not see her babies anywhere so she calls them. [*The mother cat calls and the babies must answer.*] When she finds them she brings them to the circle. When she feels all are found she counts them: 1, 2, 3.

Dog and Bone

Children seat themselves in a circle. One chair is in the center with a ball under the chair. One child, representing the dog, is in the chair with eyes closed. "Once upon a time there was a little dog, [etc.]-so he buries this last bone under his house to save for another time. While he is sleeping, another dog slips up very quietly and tries to get the bone." [*Teacher points to some child who tiptoes up. Object: to get the ball from under the chair and back to his place before the sleeping dog hears him and points in the correct direction of the sound heard.*]

Little Tommy Tittlemouse

Little Tommy Tittlemouse
Lives in a little house.
Someone's knocking-me-oh-my.
Someone's calling-it is I. (or Who am I)

One child (Tommy) sits on a chair (his house) in the middle and blinds his eyes. Another child (the visitor) goes quietly up behind. The children all recite the verse with the visitors knocking at the right time. Then the visitor alone says, "Who am I". Tommy tells the name of the visitor without looking, if he can. If Tommy can not tell who it is after three times listening to the voice, then someone describes the visitor and Tommy tries to tell from that.

The teacher gives two directions for things to do with objects and the child follows them. Build up the number of directions as the power of concentration grows. At

first the objects may be entirely different, but later all dolls may be used, for example, or different colored balls.

Clap the rhythm of a song for groups to identify.

Listen to jingles and nursery rhymes. Clap hands to the rhythm of poems or music.

Listen for repetition of phrases in music.

Listen for repetitions of endings in a poem.

Find words that rhyme. Find words that begin with the same sound.

Give a list of words which rhyme, then one which does not. See if the children can identify it immediately. Do the same with beginning sounds.

Have one child clap where the others can not see it. Have someone clap the same number of times and later have them tell how many times he clapped. A drum or blocks of wood may be used instead.

Play games where they distinguish a certain word among dissimilar words and then among similar words.

Tell the children a story or poem of a few lines then see how accurately they can reproduce it. It is well to start with a single line and increase as the children's ability improves.

5. A CHILD NEEDS TO INCREASE MOTOR DEVELOPMENT

Neither the child who is too slow and uncoördinated in movement nor the one who is too active and jumpy are well equipped to do reading. They lack ability for the controlled rhythmic movement which is necessary for the eyes. Learning controlled, coordinated and rhythmic movement of the other parts of the body is a first step in developing that in the eyes. If there is some physical or glandular difficulty they should be referred for medical care. The normal child can gain much from various school room activities.

Encourage children to do simple tricks on playground apparatus.

Walk on cracks in the floor. This is good for balance and big muscle coördination.

Walk on a ladder which is lying on the floor, first in the spaces, then on the rungs.

Play simple singing games, folk dances, and creative dances. Begin with simple rhythms and work toward the more complex.

Skip, gallop, walk, and run to music.

Provide large toys, especially blocks for free imaginative play. Nested blocks provide opportunity for controlled coördination. Peg boards are the next step, requiring finer coördination.

Provide handwork, drawing, and saw and hammer construction. Have the children do finger painting, using large sweeping movements. Drawing shows increased neuro-motor control in vertical, left-to-right horizontal and downward oblique strokes.

Cut out simple pictures, trying to keep on the line. Do the same thing with tracing. Carbon paper or tissue paper may be used for this, or they may simply trace over the figure with pencil or crayon.

Make things out of plasticine or clay. Use large lumps.

6. A CHILD NEEDS TO DEVELOP NUMBER CONCEPTS

The informal or incidental development of number concepts is an important phase of early school training. It is related to reading in several ways. The children should gain a feeling for relative size, quan-

tity, distance, and time, serial order, and, of course, a certain amount of counting, number names, and recognition of some of the figures. There is usually little need for special activities to be planned to provide these opportunities. All that is necessary is for the teacher to be aware of and make use of the situations that are already there. There is a whole quantitative vocabulary that can be developed in any ordinary kindergarten-primary situation if it is kept in mind and the children are made conscious of the correct use of the terms.

Some of these terms are:

big	a great deal more	empty
little	as many as	more than
large	as much as	far
too large	too much	near
small	enough	nearer than
too small	not enough	too far
too many	heavy	farther than
few	heavier than	before
more	light	after
less	bigger than	high
many	smaller than	low
much	full	soon
		a long time
up	last	noon
down	tall	night
wide	short	morning
narrow	taller	afternoon
long	shorter	days of week
late	even	breakfast time
early	summer	lunch time
first	winter	dinner time
second	spring	rest time
third	fall	time to go home
next	months of year	bed time

Besides this understanding of terms there should be opportunities for counting rhythmically, meaningfully, and purposefully as far as the individual children are interested in going. This should not be rote counting until the child is perfectly familiar with counting objects. The clock should play a part in their activities. Some will learn to tell time to a certain extent. All can learn to recognize that we look to the clock to tell us when to do certain things, and that some of our activities are guided by it and the meaning of a few positions of the hands.

NUMBER GAMES

Match boxes which have been covered with colored paper are placed on the floor in a row. Numbers from one through ten are printed on tagboard in crayola and clipped on the boxes. The children take turns tossing a ball. Each child holds up the number as it is hit, names it, and matches it on a number chart.

Finger plays. Example:

"Bunnies now must go to bed,"
The little Mother Rabbit said;
"But I'll count them first to see
If they have all come back to me.
One Bunny, Two Bunny, Three Bunny dear,
Four Bunny, Five Bunny.
Yes they are all here
And they are the sweetest things alive,
My little bunnies 1, 2, 3, 4, 5!"

Paint a large box cover, such as an infant size mattress box, and cut slits in it. Cut out large ducks, using "bobby pins" for bills and set them in the slits. Print numbers on either side of the ducks. Tie a magnet on the end of

a fish line and "pick off" the ducks. The child must call numbers correctly, otherwise the duck is returned to the pond. Use a large printing set so the numbers are visible to all in the group.

The teacher writes a number on the blackboard or holds up a card as she says, "You may bounce the ball the number of times this tells you to and then give the ball to some little friend."

7. A CHILD NEEDS AN INTEREST IN LEARNING TO READ

One of the greatest factors in a child's success in learning to read is his desire to learn to read. Many children develop that desire without special attention being given to it but there are many things which can be done to develop that interest where it is not already present. If there is no interest it is a waste of time to try to teach reading.

Keep children surrounded with reading situations.

Label pictures and objects in the room.

Observe the child who attempts to read labels and signs. See that he has a successful experience.

Provide library table with interesting books and plenty of opportunity to use them.

Read parts of pages or titles of pictures to children during browsing period.

Look at pictures and tell the story gained from the picture. The children get some information from the picture but the teacher reads the accompanying text for more information.

Help children associate pictures with stories. Show them the pictures that accompany a story so they may follow the story from them.

Have children illustrate stories they have heard.

Have children give titles to pictures.

Tell and read stories to children. Retell a selected group of stories until the children can tell them accurately and fluently.

Help children listen by making a statement that such a thing will happen in the story. The children listen to see if it does happen; then tell when it happens.

Help children listen to poetry; to hear it sing, or listen for new strange words.

Explain that you are reading this special page in this certain book for Mary because she wanted to know about it.

Encourage children to bring their books from home and share them with others.

Be sure that children understand that meaning can be gotten from the printed symbols.

Interpret and associate pictures and labels on wrappers on canned goods, and other articles.

Visit a first grade reading situation to see the children read.

Provide opportunities for pupils of other grades to come into the kindergarten to read interesting stories or articles relating to activities in which the kindergarteners are interested.

Encourage children to ask questions about books, stories, and recorded material. Take time to answer their questions.

Have the children make booklets. Label their pictures according to their dictation.

Encourage the children to compose original stories, poems, letters, and so forth.

Have the children compose group letters and stories. If any child does not express himself in complete thought units, ask leading questions which will result in complete thought expression.

Show the child who desires to write how to trace the letters of his name with his finger. Later show him how to write it using manuscript writing.

Demonstrate the right way to care for books. Explain the mechanical make-up of the book; tell how and why the cover breaks so easily; discuss why we need clean hands to read books, why we do not roll up the corners of our pages, and so forth.

8. A CHILD NEEDS TO DEVELOP SPECIFIC HABITS AND ABILITIES

There are certain specific habits and abilities which children need to develop before they can read well and some of them may be developed in the kindergarten. Among these are attention span, concentration, rational thinking, following directions, distinguishing symbols, and similarities and differences in letters and words, developing left-to-right concept with the return sweep to the next line, and knowing certain words, such as their own names.

a. Increasing the Attention Span

The attention span may be increased and habits of attention developed by:

Having the work of the school room interesting. Interest is present when the work grows out of experiences and is suited to abilities and needs of the pupils. This means that the work will have to be adjusted in various ways to meet the requirements of each of the pupils. The more interested the pupil, the longer will he hold his attention on the task at hand. This increases gradually.

Adjusting listening or work periods to the attention span of the children. Do not make these periods too long at first but increase them gradually as the children hold their attention for a longer and longer time.

Maintaining a high courtesy standard of quiet and

listening during group planning, story-telling, and so forth.

Concentration is very closely related to attention span, and increase in one usually results in increase in the other.

Increasing gradually the length of the work period as children gain power in concentration.

Increasing gradually the length of the story as children gain power in listening.

Helping children to strive consciously to stick to their work without letting their attention wander to other people or other activities and things.

Helping children to respect the rights of others by helping to keep work periods restful and keeping distracting noises to a minimum.

Making the work so interesting and vital to the child that necessary outside distractions do not disturb him.

Training children to complete a task while others are working elsewhere.

Helping children "stick to the point" when telling a story or relating an experience.

Holding children responsible for following out directions clearly given.

Sending children on errands bearing the message in mind. Learning to take turns in talking and to wait patiently for a turn, yet keeping their idea in mind.

b. Developing Ability to Do Rational Thinking

Since reading is a thought-getting process rather than merely a word-calling one, the ability to do rational thinking is very important. Recent research shows that it is definitely an ability that can be developed. These are some of the suggestions which are helpful:

Give children thought-provoking questions on their own level of maturity to work out for themselves.

Question children about the reasons for incidents or natural phenomena.

Help children to think through many of the little problems which daily confront them. The child who particularly needs this training will often not recognize or correctly define these problems. He will need help along these lines as well as in solving them.

Encourage children to draw their own conclusions and make their own observations from their experiences.

Meet the child's "why?" with a "why do you think?", if he has a basis for reasoning, and then help him to a solution.

Success brings confidence. Help him to evaluate his plans, work, conduct, work habits, etc.

c. Developing Ability to Follow Directions

This skill is necessary to success in any work, and of course this is true of reading. When children need help in this, it is well to give them very simple directions at first,—to do one thing right then,—then follow through to see that it is done. As they are better able to do this, the directions may be varied to include two and, later, three steps. They may cover a longer range of time, namely—"you may do this now, and then after recess (or, "later on," or "tomorrow morning when you come in") you may do that." As the children through other activities develop independence and responsibility, gain a clearer understanding of language, and increase their experience, they will usually gain in their ability to follow directions.

d. Distinguishing Similarities and Differences

One of the most important techniques in the mechanics of reading is the distinguishing of simi-

larities and differences in letters and words. Some basic suggestions along these lines were given in the section on visual abilities. A few of the more specific suggestions are given here.

Provide blocks to play with which have letters on them, both small and capital.

Provide a set of anagrams with which they can match letters as they have several blocks with each letter of the alphabet.

Cut out eight pieces of cardboard 4" x 6" and print one of the following words on the upper half of each card: yellow, green, blue, brown, red, black, orange, purple. Color the lower half of each to correspond. On pieces of tagboard print each of the above words without coloring them. The child matches these tagboard words with those on the cardboards. Incidentally, those ready for it begin to associate the word and the color and may actually learn the words. The same thing can be done with numbers, using the words to match and the figure to identify.

Use duplicate cards in matching games if things about the room have been labeled. Things which may be labeled are articles of furniture, boxes of beads, scissors, crayons, pictures, names on chairs, on lockers or coat hooks, etc. There may be signs on the construction work and various charts may be used which will be discussed later.

Draw quickly on board several objects, making one of them different. The child puts a circle around the one that is different.

Large picture puzzles. The total picture serves as an aid in matching forms.

e. Developing the Left-to-Right Eye-Sweep Habit

Another important technique in the mechanics of reading is the habit of looking at words, phrases, and

sentences, from left to right. Failure to establish this habit at the very beginning causes much confusion, the most identifiable of which is a tendency to reversals. There is also a considerable slowing up in the progress in reading. There are many things the teacher can do to establish this left-to-right eye-sweep habit in her pupils.

Sweep the hand under the printed symbols from left to right as the teacher reads charts or titles of books and pictures to children.

Tell the children "I begin here to read and then I read across this way."

See that the children learn to distinguish "left" from "right" through playing such games as "Simon Says" and "Looby Lou". Include "right" and "left" instruction when playing oral direction games.

Place a selected group of mounted pictures in miscellaneous order along the chalk rail. Tell a story involving the ideas expressed by the pictures. Have a child select the pictures and place them in a wall pocket in left to right order following the sequence of the story. If the cards run on to the next line he gets the return sweep. A child now retells the story from the card pictures, thus moving his eyes from left to right and making the return sweep.

Before children are ready to "learn to read" they should know a few words at sight. Their names are probably the first word they will know. If things around the room have been labeled they will know some of these words, especially through their matching games. Any other words which have been used in their matching games may also be known. Children should not be "taught" these words in the sense that

they feel they are supposed to know them. It will be entirely incidental learning, except perhaps for the name, but will almost always occur before the child is ready to start reading instruction, if proper opportunity for it has been given.

V

Determining the Child's Development

All first grade teachers are faced with a special problem. In the group who usually enter first grade each fall there are a certain number who are ready to proceed with a normal reading program, some who need a period of development along certain lines before they are ready, and others who need a half year or even a whole year of maturation or development before they are ready for the regular program. Then, too, those who are ready to read must be grouped according to the speed of the progress they will probably make. All first grade teachers are conscious of this problem and the question is, what to do about it. There are two main problems, first how to locate the pupils who belong in these three main divisions, and second, what to do with those who are not yet ready to read. The answer to the first is an accumulation, evaluation and analysis of information on each child and will be discussed in this chapter. A discussion of the second question will follow in Chapter VI.

The time when we need the information on the children's development is at the entrance to first grade but much of it can and should be obtained in

kindergarten for those children who have attended. Records should have been kept for each child on all the various activities such as were suggested in Chapters II-IV. Any individual tests which are to be given should be given during the last part of the kindergarten term. However, it is usually better to give group tests at the beginning of first grade so that the whole group including new-comers and those who did not attend kindergarten may be tested at once. These new pupils should also be picked up on as many of the individual tests as possible. The general plan is only one of expediency and when the tests are to be given must in the last analysis be determined by the situation in the individual school. The important thing is which tests are to be given and which records used.

Chronological age. The first record on entering school is usually the child's age. Most states provide some regulation as to minimum age for first grade and few children much less than six years old are entered. From various standpoints the number should probably be less than it is, for few children much less than six, regardless of certain precocities, are sufficiently developed along all the various lines which are needed in learning to read. Such cases should be studied very carefully and be admitted only on definite objective evidence of very favorable prognosis. Where the child's age as given seems dubious, records should be consulted.

Aside from this problem of the under-age child chronological age is not much of a factor within the narrow range found in entering first-graders.

mental age. Mental age is undoubtedly one of the important factors in determining a child's ability to learn to read. If an intelligence test is to be given, it may be either a group or an individual test. Probably the best individual test is the Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford-Binet. Others which may be used include the older Stanford Revision of the Binet et.

The group intelligence tests which seem to be most effective in this problem are the Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test, the Pintner-Cunningham Intelligence Test and the Pre-Primary California Test of Mental Maturity. This last mentioned test seems to be particularly valuable for this purpose. It has fifteen subtests each of which has separate norms. They are listed as visual acuity, auditory acuity, motor coordination, memory, immediate recall, delayed recall, social relations tests of right and left, manipulation areas (similarity of forms), foresight in special situations (maze), reasoning tests of opposites, similarities, analogies, number concepts, numerical quantities, inference, and vocabulary. It is designed particularly for kindergarten and first grade and may be given in two periods of forty-five minutes each or three periods of thirty minutes each.

The Pintner-Cunningham test can be given in one sitting and includes subtests on classification, aesthetic sense, relationships, judging relative size, recognition; similarities in pictures, and picture completion selection.

The Detroit Beginning First Grade Test can also be given in one sitting and includes subtests on in-

formation, similarities, memory, absurdities, comparisons, relationships, symmetries, designs, counting, and directions.

There are many other tests available too numerous to mention, and any one of them which has a high reliability and validity may be used with profit. Correlations for most intelligence tests are about .45 to .50 between first grade reading and mental ages.

From one or more of these tests the mental ages of the children are obtained. These are a great help in predicting which children are ready to learn to read and which are not. Only a small percentage of pupils who begin the regular reading program with a mental age of less than six years become good readers. Those with a mental age of 6.0 or over have a much better chance and those with a mental age of 6.6 or over, a still better chance.

Probably only pupils with mental ages above 6.6, and those above 6.0 who show definite evidence of readiness in other ways, should be admitted to the regular reading program. Children below six years chronologically should probably have a mental age of 6.6 or over if they are to go into the regular reading program. Only in rare cases where there are many other definitely favorable factors should such children begin reading without a further period of readiness work.

Intelligence Quotient. The IQ has little value in itself of predicting the type of program most helpful to pupils at this stage but only when considered with other factors. Pupils who are young chronologically but with an IQ considerably above average may be

able to go on with the regular program immediately if they show readiness for it in other ways for they will probably develop faster than the average child. But then, this will show up in a high mental age. So it is of much more value to consider mental age, and mental age in relation to chronological age, than it is to consider the I Q when determining the program for first grade entrants.

Reading readiness tests. There are a variety of reading-readiness tests on the market varying considerably as to length, number of factors tested, difficulty of administering, extent to which they measure the same factors as intelligence tests do, and ability in predicting success in reading. Most of these tests are better predictors of success than any other single measure, in most cases better than mental age. Using both the mental age and reading readiness test score together is better than using either one separately. Many of the tests are diagnostic as well as prognostic. They not only show how well prepared the child is for learning to read but in what factors he needs help so that he may be better prepared. The more common tests are discussed here and their advantages and limitations are given.

Two of the tests are individual tests, and the others group. The individual are the Betts Ready to Read Tests and Van Wagenen's Reading Readiness Test. The Betts Ready to Read Tests measure visual readiness, letter forms, capital and lower case, and word forms; auditory readiness, auditory span and auditory fusion, visual sensation and perception, binocular vision, fusion at far and near points, visual acuity.

lateral imbalance, vertical imbalance, depth perception and errors in refraction, and tests of dominance, including ocular dominance and handedness.

The unique value claimed for this test is the analysis of the eyes and the way the child can use them in the type of activity required in reading. There have been differences of opinion as to the extent of its value. There is, of course, small correlation of this section of the tests with success in reading, as might be expected. It is diagnostic rather than predictive.

One of its values is to locate pupils whose eyes may need attention and who would not be located by testing with the Snellen chart. Betts says that the Snellen Test will detect only from 10 to 40% of the cases with visual disabilities at reading distance. This has been borne out in several independent studies. When oculists and optometrists examine pupils sent to them on the basis of the test there are varying reports as to the percentage of the children whose eyes need help.

The Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test is a verbal test in which children listen to or look at words. It is an individual test as has been stated, and it tests range of information, perception of relations, vocabulary, memory span for ideas, word discrimination (similarities and differences), and word learning. The authors report a correlation of .73 with success in reading, but Gates in his study for determining reading readiness reports a correlation of .52. Conditions of teaching and emphasis in testing success in reading both are large factors in making for such variations. If correlations of .73 can be obtained, the

test has very satisfactory predictive value, and even correlations of .52 will tell more about the child's success in reading than most intelligence tests will. The fact that it is an individual test makes the results more dependable than those of a group test. Particularly at this age level is this true, for little children are easily distracted and are sometimes slow at understanding what is expected of them, particularly when it is one of their first experiences in school.

The test has the advantage of being diagnostic. Each section of the test has interpreted scores. These so-called c-scores are comparable from subtest to subtest, so that a child's strengths and weaknesses are readily apparent.

This test's main disadvantage is that it takes about forty-five minutes for each child tested. Whether or not the advantage of the greater reliability of the score of an individual test is worth the added time depends on the particular school situation.

There are a number of group reading-readiness tests which are more or less diagnostic and which predict reading achievement with greater or less success. In using them no more than fifteen children should be tested at once so that the testor can see that all are working to best advantage. In interpreting scores on this type of test there are some things that should be kept in mind. High scores are probably more reliable than low scores because a child must be able to respond correctly to get a high score. A low score may be the result of inability or it may be the result of distraction or the confusion of a new situation or the misunderstanding of some direction.

So when a child gets a high score he should be able to succeed in reading unless some of the other factors which have not been measured are unfavorable, such as lack of emotional development or little interest in learning to read. It is these other factors which tests will not reveal which make the success of the high scorers somewhat uncertain.

On the other hand, pupils who score low on the tests will most probably be unable to succeed at reading if the score is an adequate measure of their ability. Their development in the other areas will seldom be sufficient to make up for the inabilities shown on the test. The only cases where they might be those in which the test score is not a correct estimate of their abilities in the areas tested. Where test results differ radically from teacher estimates and work records, it would be well to retest, either with the same test or with an individual test.

The Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test published in 1931 was the first reading readiness test to appear. A revised edition was published in 1943. It now consists of three parts. The first part deals with letter symbols, the second with concepts involving vocabulary and following directions using pictures, and the third with word symbols, recognizing similarities of form. Each test varies from the most simple to rather difficult items. The test is useful for diagnosis as well as prediction of reading ability. It has the advantage of being easily given and quickly scored. Ratings on other factors should, of course, be considered with these results. Norms are given in terms of expected percentage of failure at each level; scores

beyond which children should be able to succeed if other factors are favorable; and scores below which children would probably fail in a regular reading program.

The Metropolitan Readiness Test has six subtests and needs four periods of testing. The tests are similarities of pictures, letters, and words, copying forms, numbers, and letters, vocabulary, understanding sentences, number knowledge, and information. Thus a wide range of abilities is tested. The standardization furnishes percentile norms on each test separately and the child's age is taken into consideration in the percentile scores for the total. The test is more like an intelligence test than a reading readiness test and correlates very highly with a group of intelligence test scores. It is advisable to use some ratings in connection with these scores.

The Monroe Reading Aptitude Test has seventeen subtests and requires two sittings totaling about 50 minutes. Parts of the tests are to be individually administered. The tests involve memory of orientation of forms which measures ability to see likenesses and differences and reversal tendencies; ocular-motor control and attention; reproduction from memory of complex visual symbols; motor tests measuring speed, steadiness, and the child's ability to write his name; auditory tests which measure auditory word discrimination, sound blending, and ability to remember and reproduce ideas from a story read to him; language tests measuring vocabulary, naming all the items a child can think of in a specified classification, and the length of sentences the child uses and the extent

of his use of connectives; articulation tests which measure good articulation, and the rapidity with which the child can repeat words; and tests of eye, hand, and foot dominance. This test is more comprehensive than any of the others, takes longer to give than the other group tests, owing to the fact that some of the tests are individual, but not as long as a strictly individual test. It is diagnostic in several areas and in various phases of these areas. The author reports a correlation of .75 between her test and reading success at the end of the first year, which is very good.

TESTS OF SPECIFIC FACTORS IN READING READINESS

Vision. The most comprehensive and careful study of the child's vision which can be obtained by school people is through the use of Betts Ready to Read Tests. Its reliability before the age of eight years has been questioned but the test may be helpful in certain circumstances. As was stated before, the equipment is fairly expensive but not prohibitive for a good-sized school system for of course it may be used on any child of school age clear through the high school.

The other test of vision commonly used is the Snellen Chart.

Auditory tests. The audiometer is the only accurate means of checking a child's hearing. Western Electric has an audiometer A which can be used for testing groups of children by means of ear phones attached to a machine playing a special record. The

exact degree of acuity of hearing in each ear can be obtained in a few minutes. The audiometer 6a may be used for screening and 4a for a final check. This apparatus is also fairly expensive, but it can be loaned from school system to school system and thus bought coöperatively or its original cost partly taken care of by rental fees.

If no better means is available, the use of a watch is better than nothing. Bring the watch gradually toward the person from his right side until he can hear the tick and mark the distance. Try it again and record the average distance. Repeat from the left side. Use the same watch on all children in the room to get a common measure. Be careful to have the room as quiet as possible for all tests.

Speech. It is often difficult for anyone not trained in speech correction to be certain about defective speech. Some children of six may have speech deficiencies which are perfectly normal, in that they will of their own accord develop into normal speech. Other children of three who may seem to have the same difficulties may have a really defective speech because it is due to a condition which can not be corrected without special help. First of all, children with physical handicaps, such as harelip, cleft palate, or deafness, will practically always need special help before they can be expected to acquire normal or near-normal speech.

West¹ gives the following simple and very helpful guides for recognizing defective speech.

¹ Robert West, "When Is a Speech Defect?", *Wisconsin Speech Courier*, Vol 2 (October, 1940), pp. 6-7.

1. That child of any age beyond 42 months is to be regarded as abnormal in speech if he is known to be abnormal in physical structure or in functional development and if his speech abnormality can be demonstrably related to his structural or functional anomaly. Thus: a child who is four years old, known to be deaf, whose vowel sounds are inaccurate and whose sibilants and fricatives are defective, must be regarded as defective.
2. Any child must be regarded as abnormal who falls behind the following schedule of critical ages in speech development:
At 42 months, *p* as in peep; *b* as in bib; *m* as in maim; *w* as in wail; *h* as in hail.
At 54 months, *d* as in deed; *t* as in toot; *n* as in noon; *g* as in gig; *k* as in cook; *ng* as in sing; *y* as in you.
At 66 months, *f* as in fife.
At 78 months, *v* as in valve; *th* as in either; *zh* as in vision; *sh* as in mission; *l* as in lull.
At 90 months, *z* as in zones; *s* as in cease; *r* as in rear; *th* as in ether; *wh* as in whale.

Thus a child of six years who cannot manage the sounds of *g*, *b*, *p*, *f*, *v*, and *m*, must be regarded as defective in speech, even though he seems normal.

3. That child of 42 months or less, who is otherwise normal, should be regarded as normal even though he has not learned to speak. Thus: the healthy lad of three years, who has not begun to speak, should not be thought defective even though his sister of 18 months is already saying a few words.
4. That apparently healthy child under 90 months of age who exhibits speech that is non-standard for his community should not be regarded as abnormal if he has not fallen behind the schedule of critical ages (given above). Thus: the husky child of five

years, who is unable to make the sounds of *r* and *th*, should not be thought defective.

It is important that children who need help should have it as soon as possible. It is equally important that the children who do not, should not be bothered and made self-conscious by this help they do not need.

Teachers' ratings. Teachers may rate pupils on a wide variety of items, among them personality, emotional development, social development, mental ability, success in tasks related to reading, general reading readiness, and their impression of the child's probable success in a regular reading program. These ratings may have little or great value depending upon two things. The more specific and definite the trait the more accurately the teacher can judge it. Even with the same rating scales, some teachers are much better able than others to evaluate a child's abilities and understand his strengths and weaknesses, much more accurate in predicting his success. The value of a teacher's ratings can be known only by experiment. The success of her predictions can be checked for a few years and this will give an estimate of their value. Some teachers can rate the children they have had in kindergarten a year on the one factor of "readiness for a regular reading program" more effectively than will a battery of tests. However, such teachers are few, and usually the ratings are of value only when considered with other information on the child and then only to the extent that they have previously proved valuable.

In some cases a rating scale definitely improves the value of a teacher's rating while occasionally it seems to be a hindrance and her single rating is more valuable. This also must be discovered by trial.

In deciding on the items to be included in a rating scale several things must be kept in mind. It should not be so long as to place an unnecessary burden on the teacher. It should be detailed enough so that it may be used diagnostically. It is especially important that the child who is not ready for reading should have his weaknesses analyzed enough so that he may be given the type of help he most needs. It should supplement rather than duplicate other records and measures which are obtained on the children.

A rating scale may be devised by each school or system and should cover all factors of reading readiness discussed in Chapters II-IV for which there are no informal records kept or tests given. Thus ratings, records, and test data together should give a well-rounded picture, diagnostic as well as predictive.

The following rating scale has been included with the intention that it should be used diagnostically rather than for predicting success in reading. Where there are no standardized measures to be used, teachers may find the scale a help in bringing to mind a well-rounded picture of each child before she must decide on the type of program she feels is best suited to his needs. It should be used qualitatively and not quantitatively unless it is put through the statistical procedure of standardization. The scale should also be of enormous help to the teacher who will have the child the following term.

I. Emotional Stability.

1. ☐ He seems very insecure
☐ He seems somewhat secure
☐ He seems normally secure
2. ☐ He withdraws from the group
☐ He takes a normal place in the group
☐ He over-asserts himself in the group
3. ☐ He cries often
☐ He cries occasionally
☐ He never cries
4. ☐ He frequently has tantrums
☐ He occasionally has tantrums
☐ He never has tantrums
5. ☐ He often seems unhappy in school
☐ He occasionally seems unhappy in school
☐ He always seems happy in school

II. Social development.

6. ☐ He usually plays only with one particular child
☐ He usually plays with several different children
☐ He usually plays with nearly anyone in the group
7. ☐ He never starts trouble in a group
☐ He seldom starts trouble in a group
☐ He often starts trouble in a group
8. ☐ He has too little self-confidence
☐ He has normal self-confidence
☐ He is over-confident
9. ☐ He is continually doing things to gain attention
☐ He occasionally does things to gain attention
☐ He never seems to do things just to get attention

10. — He frequently loses his temper
— He occasionally loses his temper
— He almost never loses his temper

III. Language Development.

11. — He usually expresses himself in words or phrases
— He usually expresses himself in short simple sentences
— He usually expresses himself in a mixture of simple and compound or complex sentences
12. — He almost never tells a story or incident
— He occasionally tells a story or incident
— He frequently tells a story or incident
13. — His vocabulary is very narrow and inadequate
— His vocabulary is average
— His vocabulary is unusually broad and comprehensive
14. — He often fails to follow or misses the point of a story that is told
— He occasionally fails to follow or misses the point of a story that is told
— He almost never fails to follow or misses the point of a story that is told
15. — He is careless about the accuracy and exactness of his expression of an idea
— He uses average care in the accuracy and exactness of his expression of an idea
— He uses great care in the accuracy and exactness of his expression of an idea

IV. Development of Specific Abilities.

16. — His articulation is definitely below average for his age

- His articulation is about average for his age
- His articulation is above average for his age
- 17. — He shows no outward signs (rubbing eyes, blinking, frowning, squinting, holding book too near or too far from his eyes, twisting his head, etc.) of not being able to see well
 - He shows occasional signs of not being able to see well
 - He often shows signs of not being able to see well
- 18. — He shows no evidence (inattention while others are talking, not responding to oral directions, inaccurate reproduction of things heard, etc.) of poor hearing
 - He shows occasional evidence of poor hearing
 - He frequently shows evidence of poor hearing
- 19. — His control in large bodily activities is excellent
 - His control in large bodily activities is average
 - His control in large bodily activities is poor
- 20. — His control of hand and finger movements (coloring, cutting out, etc.) is excellent
 - His control of hand and finger movements is average
 - His control of hand and finger movements is poor
- 21. — His use of number concepts is meager or from mere rote memory
 - His use of number concepts shows some understanding

- His use of number concepts shows excellent understanding
- 22. — He shows little interest in learning to read
- He shows average interest in learning to read
- He shows a great interest in learning to read
- 23. — His attention jumps from one thing to another, never finishing anything
- His attention is apt to waver before a task is completed
- His attention stays on one task until it is finished
- 24. — He shows evidence of good logical thinking
- He shows occasional evidence of good logical thinking
- He shows little evidence of good logical thinking
- 25. — He follows directions accurately
- He has some difficulty in following directions
- He has considerable difficulty in following directions
- 26. — He has well developed the concept of left to right in looking at books
- He has partially developed the concept of left to right in looking at books
- He has no concept of left to right in looking at books

V. Experiential Background.

- 27. — He has had experience with an unusually wide selection of toys
- He has had experience with a normal variety of toys
- He has had experience with a meagre supply of toys

28. — He knows his neighborhood or community unusually well
— He knows his neighborhood or community fairly well
— He has been very limited in his contact with his neighborhood outside of his own small territory
29. — He has travelled widely with adults or lived in a variety of communities
— He has travelled an average amount
— He has never been out of his community
30. — He has had wide contact with growing living things as plants, animals, birds, etc.
— He has had normal contact with them
— He has had limited contact with them
31. — He comes from an unusually good home background
— He comes from an average home background
— He comes from a meagre home background
32. — He has many experiences in home relationships which make him a respected member of the group
— He has an average amount of such experiences
— He has few such experiences
33. — He has had experience with a large number and variety of books
— He has had experience with an average number of books
— He has had little experience with books
34. — He has had a great deal of opportunity to work independently
— He has had average opportunity
— He has always depended on others

VI

Planning a Program for Checking and Teaching

HOW TO PLAN A PROGRAM FOR DETERMINING THE
READING READINESS OF PUPILS ON THEIR ENTRANCE
TO FIRST GRADE WHICH IS SUITED TO YOUR
OWN SCHOOL SITUATION

Things any school can do. There are certain things any school can do to determine reading readiness regardless of lack of extra help or money for tests.

Kindergarten teachers can keep records of the children's work on all the various types of reading-readiness activities. A duplicated sheet for each child listing the various types of such activities, planned with space for recordings over a period of time to show progress as well as status at the end of the year, simplifies and coördinates this type of record. It is also an effective form for the first grade teacher to use.

Rating scales for teachers' ratings of various phases of development and abilities such as were suggested may be kept by the kindergarten teachers and turned over to the first grade teacher.

In any cases that appear to need medical attention, such as those with some physical disorder, those who

may have some hearing or vision deficiency, the teacher should get in touch with the home. She may explain to the parent what it is that has caused her to suspect that help is needed, and the handicap it will be to the child if nothing is done about it. Further than this, of course, she can not go unless the school provides for physical examinations.

The first grade teacher can have conferences with the kindergarten teacher before the end of the year concerning those whom they think would profit more by remaining in kindergarten than by going into one of the programs the first grade teacher plans to set up.

They may have further conferences either at the end of the year or the beginning of the next, on each of the pupils going on to first grade. If there is no time for this, though it would be worthwhile to take the time, yet there can be discussion of the cases who definitely need readiness training and those who may need it.

The first grade teacher can start out the year by giving informal readiness material of various types such as was used in the kindergarten. This will give her some estimate of the abilities of the pupils on whom she has no records.

On the basis of these records and conferences she can make a fair estimate of which pupils are now ready to learn to read, which need a little more help and opportunity for development, and along which lines that development is needed.

If services of a nurse or physician are available, there can be a general physical check-up, and at least

a check on vision with the Snellen chart and some sort of hearing test. The first grade teacher may then add these records to her others. She will know which children need to be seated so that they may see better or hear better. She can also adjust their work so as to minimize their handicap.

If extra time or help is available but no funds are, the former may be most profitably employed in giving an individual test to each child toward the end of his year in kindergarten or at the beginning of the first grade for those who do not go to kindergarten. If a trained tester is available, probably the most useful test in the long run is the Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford Binet. If the person has not been trained to give this test, then an individual reading-readiness test such as the Van Wagenen may be given. This is of more immediate value than the Binet as it correlates more highly with success in reading and shows each child's particular strengths and weaknesses. If the child will probably be given intelligence tests within the next two or three years anyway, the reading-readiness test might be preferred to the intelligence test at this time.

Further time may be devoted to more extensive checks on the child's speech. Also more comprehensive and extensive records and ratings of his daily reactions to the materials and situations, such as those described in Chapters II-IV, would be helpful.

If some money is available, the first purchase should be a comprehensive reading-readiness test. Such tests are very inexpensive and are of great value both in determining the type of program

that is best suited to the child's needs as well as the particular deficiencies in which he needs help. If another test should be given, an intelligence test will probably add more to the picture of the child's abilities than would another reading-readiness test. For instance, if a child ranks appreciably higher on a test such as the California Test of Mental Maturity, Pintner-Cunningham or Detroit First Grade than on the reading readiness test, he probably needs more specific training in the various phases of reading readiness but he can be expected to progress faster than might have been anticipated from the first test.

*If there is money available for equipment*¹ the Project-O-Chart² is well worth the expenditure. It provides a screening test to determine visual defects. It is simple to use and does not require special training to interpret the findings. Where deviations from normal are indicated, the parents are encouraged to see their family oculist.

If more equipment can be obtained, an audiometer is of next greatest value. A definite reading of the acuity of hearing for each ear can be of great assistance in seating children both as to nearness to the speaker and in a position so that he may make the best use possible of the better ear.

If a school system does not feel that it can afford

¹ Schools should first be certain that they have adequate instructional materials, and adequate equipment for the development of the children physically, socially, and emotionally and for increasing their experience backgrounds.

² The Project-O-Chart is distributed by the American Optical Company, 25 Kearney Street, San Francisco, Calif. The price was listed at \$118.00 with an excise tax of \$5.72.

to buy either of these, the equipment may sometimes be rented from a nearby city, or two systems may go together and purchase the material.

There is another important consideration in planning a readiness-testing program. The efficiency of various measures in predicting success depends to a large extent on the type of teaching that is to be done. If the emphasis is on idea-getting, with a minimum of emphasis on the mechanical phases, then measures which test for logical thinking, memory for ideas and similar mental skills will be much more valuable. Whereas, if the emphasis is on the more traditional mechanical side, then the noting of similarities and differences and other tests of word discrimination will be more valuable. Of course, there are many types of activities which are as valuable for any type of program as are the types mentioned above. It is merely a case of emphasis.

From these suggestions it is hoped that various systems may be able to set up a program which will give the most and best possible information commensurate with the facilities available. The first grade is one of the most crucial points in a child's school career, and here, if ever, every effort should be made to see that he is understood and receives the type of program best suited to his needs.

WHAT TYPES OF TEACHING PROGRAMS SHOULD BE SET UP?

The exact answer to this question must be made by each school system and by each separate school.

within the system. However, some suggestions and possible solutions for various types of situations may be offered here.

The results of the measures discussed in this chapter will distribute the children entering first grade over a range from best to poorest in the group. In certain good residential sections where most of the children have had good kindergarten experience, teachers may find that all the group are ready to begin to read. Other teachers will find that from one or two up to the majority of the group should not attempt reading for a semester, and some perhaps may not be ready for a year. In this section *reading* will be used in its more limited sense to mean reading from books with the usual six to ten weeks of work in specific preparation for it.

Programs for those "ready to read." The first problem that is always present is what to do with the pupils who are ready to begin to read. These should be put into flexible groups of from six to twelve according to the best estimate of their readiness to read and their probable success. The larger groups should be for the more capable pupils and the smaller for the less capable. Different materials should be used with these different groups. A longer introductory period before there is actual reading from books should be given to the slower groups, while the more capable may go into books with only a short introductory period. The text series used with the slower pupils should be easier, contain more running words for each new word introduced, and have new words and concepts introduced more gradually, not more than

two or at most three new words on any page. The more advanced groups will probably enjoy better the somewhat more difficult books where as many as four new words may be introduced on a page. Varying the material is more satisfactory than varying the rate of reading, for the slower group needs more rather than less experience in reading. Slowing down the rate merely gives less experience. If instead, easier material is used, and particularly when this is supplemented by material prepared to go with these books, or by experience charts³ *using the same vocabulary*, children get a wealth of experience in reading material which they can read easily. This gives them that self-confidence which is so necessary and a solid foundation on which to build.

Program for those not "ready to read." The second problem is what to do with those children who are not ready to start reading. This problem is often a more difficult one to solve administratively as well as educationally. It depends so much on the situation. How many children of this type are there? Are they all at relatively the same stage of development? Will they need a long or only a relatively short period of growth before they are ready to read?

Let us first consider the problem *administratively*. Where certain children are young and decidedly immature it may be well to hold them in kindergarten another year where this is possible. Particularly would this seem advisable where the child has had difficulty making adjustment to the new situation and seems to have made little of the development

³ See Chapters VIII and IX.

possible in kindergarten. This may also solve the problem when there are only two or three children who need much more of the readiness program. In this case the kindergarten teacher should be aware of the problems and strive to supplement development made the year before. Where there are enough of these children to form a small group they may be considered one of the "reading groups" in the first grade room. If there are enough for two such groups they may be divided as to stage of their development.

Probably the most satisfactory situation is one in which it is possible to have a whole class together who need further development before they are ready to begin reading. Here a teacher can give her full attention to this group. They may be divided into smaller groups according to their stages of development. This plan has been developed in several places using the terms "Little B's," "Junior Primary," or "Reading Readiness Group." In systems with yearly promotions pupils usually stay in this group a year—proceeding with reading as fast as they are ready for it. Where there are semi-yearly promotions, the more advanced group enter beginning first grade after one term.

Some systems enter all children in what they call a Primary class which may either be a one- or two-year term. These are then grouped according to their stage of development. No commitment is made until the end of the year as to whether the child will complete the work of this group in one or two years. This delay allows a freedom to group and re-group pupils according to their progress and to give them

the amount and type of basic training necessary. A large enough proportion of the pupils are given the two-year period so that there is no stigma attached to it and the parents are pleased for they can be shown that their child is placed where he can make more satisfactory progress.

In any and all of these administrative set-ups pupils should be allowed to progress as rapidly as they are able. In any type of organization there will be small groups within each room who will be ready for the same type of material at about the same time. Each of these groups should progress at its own best rate regardless of what other groups are doing. If, after a period of time, one or two children in the group seem to outdistance the others or fall behind, some adjustment should be made. This adjustment should be possible by shifting pupils from group to group as they develop faster or more slowly than the rest of the group.

Now, let us look at the problem *educationally*. The children retained in kindergarten will need some extra individual attention to insure a program somewhat varied from the one they had the past year. In most cases they will now be ready to take part in the readiness activities more effectively than before. Those who are in special groups or special classes need special programs. These programs should be built from activities of the types suggested in Chapters II-IV, according to the individual needs of the children and groups. As the development of these children proceeds, they will at the end of a few weeks, a few months, or a year be at the stage where

the children were who went on with the regular reading program at the beginning of the year. They will need in general the same type of program, always adjusting it to the rate of progress and the particular needs of the children.

Where there are no kindergartens. So far this program has been set up primarily for schools which have kindergartens. We realize that most children do not have the opportunity to go to kindergarten and some who do have the opportunity do not take advantage of it. The problem of what to do about reading readiness under these circumstances, then, is a very real one. Children enter first grade a year older, a year more mature, with a background of another year's experiences than when they would have entered kindergarten. But they have missed the planned, directed experiences which kindergarten can bring. Thus they are more ready than the entering kindergarten child but not as ready as one who has had a year of kindergarten experience. In the beginning we have only this generalization on which to go. What are the next steps?

We believe that the most helpful program is that which begins where we would have begun in the kindergarten program. We can follow out all the suggestions given in Chapters II-IV *with this difference*: We should expect somewhat more mature reactions and more rapid progress. The normal child at the end of three months will probably be at a stage somewhat comparable to that of a child with kindergarten experience at the end of six weeks of first grade. The greatest difference will probably be

the presence of more children who have trouble in making the more difficult adjustment to school. There will probably be more variation within the group. It will be even more important to recognize each child's particular problems and abilities and to see that he gets the kind and the level of experiences that he needs most.

This general exploratory period may last from a month to three months, depending on the group. When the teacher feels that some of the children are ready to go into more specific reading-readiness work, and that the children have adjusted to the school situation enough for her to get a fair estimate of their progress, it would be well to have a general evaluation period. She may follow out as many of the suggestions given in Chapter V as time and money permit and as she feels would aid in further helping the children. As a result of this period she may regroup her pupils in whatever way she feels is most helpful, and go ahead as a first grade teacher might whose children had just come to her from kindergarten. She will have the advantage that she already knows them.

This initial exploratory and readiness period will be more than worth the time spent. It will furnish the foundation so necessary to successful progress in reading and in all school work as well. It will give the children an opportunity to make their adjustment to the new school situation more easily by having the beginning experiences within the ability of all. This initial successful experience is invaluable. It enables the teacher to become better acquainted with

each child by exploring their abilities in a wider field of activities. She can thus watch their development rather than concentrate on "teaching them to read." Thus, those children who enter first grade without kindergarten experience probably will make progress faster by being assured of at least the basis of an adequate foundation and background which they missed by not having that year of kindergarten training.

At this point, the program for all is still one of reading readiness but of a more specific type. The following chapter will give the purposes of such a program and some suggestions which may be helpful.

VII

Developing the Next Stage of Reading Readiness

Final Considerations Before Actual Reading is Begun

As we have said in the first chapter, readiness for a certain level of reading must precede that reading. Furthermore, we stated that each stage of reading development is a readiness period for the next level of reading. We have just taken time out to make a thorough-going analysis and diagnosis of the various stages of development which the various entering first grade youngsters have reached.

We have indicated provisions for and administrative means of giving extra help suited to the particular needs of those who have not developed as rapidly as some of the rest of the group. This analysis was intended to be just a more thorough and extensive check-up of the type which had been going on all year. Because it came between kindergarten and first grade or at the entrance to first grade there had to be more definite administrative decisions than during the year. The analysis gave a better opportunity to reorganize pupils into groups which needed more nearly the same level of experiences.

We have discussed the types of experiences which

the less advanced groups need. The problem before us now is "What types of experiences do the children need who will soon be ready to read from books?" It is the purpose of this chapter to try to answer that question. The answer in general is that these experiences should not be so much different in kind as they should be simply at more advanced levels than those previously described.

Emotional stability. A child's emotional stability is fully as important at this level as at any other, if not more so. The analysis and suggestions given in Chapters II-IV are equally pertinent here. We should expect evidence of more security, of more independence, of greater social development, of more self-confidence, of more self-control and a diminishing of the little attention-getting devices. However, each child should be studied from each one of these points by the first grade teacher. This should be put with the kindergarten teacher's evaluation. A better understanding should result from a consideration of both these evaluations. This is an extremely important part of any school program and should be an integral part of every teacher's planning and should not be lost in the maze of detail of the more formal progress as is too often the case. Health, of course, should be a factor that is ever present in the thinking and planning of all teachers.

Experience background. At this point the child has already acquired some background of experience both in and out of school. The first step now is to get some idea of what that experience has been. The teacher should know the type of families and homes

in the neighborhood where her pupils live. She should know the immediate community and what it offers in the way of experiences. She should know the types of school experiences the children have had. With this knowledge and the kindergarten individual records as a basis she should have a fairly good idea of the types of pertinent experience that each child has had. From this basis the teacher should plan the experiences for the coming year. She should fill in gaps wherever they are evident. She should plan for her pupils to have as real, as wide, and as vital experiences as possible at their stage of development.¹

Particularly should experiences be planned to precede any attempt to "read about" that experience. These should be first hand experiences if possible, if not there should at least be vicarious ones. Where certain books are required reading in the first grade, teachers should plan experiences to make the reading meaningful, vital, and purposeful. When the books are selected by the teacher and the group, the experience may be planned on other considerations, and books selected which will furnish purposeful reading about similar experience.

Language ability. By the first grade we can expect to see progress in a child's language ability. He should speak with more fluency, with greater precision, in longer and more complex sentences, with a greater variety of words than he did last year. He should be able to tell a better story. It should be more connected, each idea more logically following

¹ Suggestions in Chapter III are equally valuable here when interpreted in light of the foregoing paragraph.

the one before, and more adequately and accurately expressed. He needs a good deal the same type of language experiences and activities as were suggested in Chapter IV. These should be suited to each child's needs and stage of development. Suggestions for other language activities for which most of this group of children will be ready, are given here:

His sequence of ideas should be longer.

He should have some "feel" for right words, correct usage, correct expression.

His conversation should include more of his group and not so much "I".

He begins to sense relationship in his sentences.

Reasoning, critical thinking, relationship of cause and effect often enters his discussions and planning.

He begins to desire some type of recording.

He often refers to picture books for authority.

Articulation. The children's articulation should be developing gradually, and most children will show improvement each year. Any cases which seem to be real speech defects should have the help of a specialist trained in the field. For the rest of the children the suggestions given in Chapter IV are just as valuable as they were for the other group, provided, of course, the stage of development of the children is taken into consideration.

Visual abilities. At this stage the eye is still not fully developed. All the precautions for the care of the eyes and vision should be taken here as always. Those listed on page 60 particularly should be kept in mind.

The child should have acquired habits of "seeing

things" during the last year that he did not see before. He should be more observing, more able to see likenesses and differences. It is this sort of "seeing" that needs further development not only this year but all through life. There are any number of games which help in this development. Here are a few of them.

Using the general principles involved in the suggestion in Chapter IV, better seeing and finer discriminations may be required. For instance, in placing a group of objects on a table for the children to look at a few seconds and then remember, more objects can be used. The objects may be more similar. They may be similar in color or in size, or both, which forces the child to notice other differences.

In recognizing which objects have been removed or interchanged, objects similar to each other or to others in the group may be moved.

Matching games can be used more and more. The things in the group to be matched can be more similar so as to take finer discrimination to locate the ones which are alike.

Pictures to be matched may have an identifying word or phrase beneath each. Later on, cards with just words or phrases on them may be matched or a card with a word may be matched to one with both picture and word.

Auditory abilities. At this stage the child should be hearing as well as seeing more adequately. He should be hearing the difference between *which* and *witch*, between *pitcher* and *picture*, *for* and *four*, *thick* and *tick*, *weather* and *whether*.

There can be even more emphasis on words that rhyme. Later this can serve as an aid in phonics, when the rhyming words are written under each other and the similarities discovered. Care must be taken not to confuse the children at this stage with endings that sound alike but do not look alike. As for instance, *make, cake, lake, rake* all have the same ending but *care, bear, fair* should not be presented *together* in written form until the children have a solid enough foundation not to be disturbed and confused by them, probably not till second or third grade.

There can also be games of finding words that begin the same. This is particularly helpful as later on the looks of the letters are connected with these sounds. Here again care must be exercised not to confuse rather than help the child. However, there are fewer difficulties here than in the word endings. Words beginning with consonants cause little difficulty except for *c* which may sound like either *s* or *k*, or for *th* which may sound either as in *the* or in *thick*.

Motor development. Children should continue any of the types of motor training that were suggested in Chapter IV which they seem to need. Large muscle activity must not be neglected. In fact, it should constitute the most of such activity. Coloring, cutting out, and tracing should be the main activities involving the accessory muscles and these should not be with too small or complicated things. Drawing shows still greater neuro-muscular control. Easel painting, clay modeling, construction with saw and hammer

should still be the type of activities forming the bulk of motor development at this level. Jumping, running, and skipping are all a little surer. The children are more agile on the play apparatus.

Number concepts. At this level there is often some development of number concepts for numerical understandings, over and above their part in reading readiness. However, the importance of the type of number experiences suggested in Chapter IV cannot be too strongly stressed. Their value for reading readiness is great, but of equal or even greater importance is their value in building number understandings. Greater familiarity with this vocabulary and more accuracy in its use should be expected at this level. Counting should still be purposeful rather than rote. Children can learn a little more about telling time by the clock, about reading and writing numbers, estimating near and far, bigger, smaller, and so forth.

Interest in learning to read. Learning to read without interest in learning to read is a next to impossible or at least an uphill task. Most children want to learn to read but unfortunate experiences may weaken that desire or create an active dislike. So this stimulation of interest is not a theoretical statement but a very practical, pressing, and continuing problem.

What are the factors that promote interest? The three most important are probably familiarity, success, and purpose. There are other factors that might be mentioned but most of them may be included under one or another of these three headings. Now

let us look at these three factors a little more closely to see what implications we can draw from them for our classroom procedure.

Familiarity. We can not be interested in anything we do not know about. We must know what it is, what it can do for us, how it can help us and what fun we can get from it. This is the purpose of most of the suggested activities in Chapter IV, Sec. 7. The children handle books, look at the pictures, interpret these pictures, listen to the stories about these pictures being read by the teacher. They see that the teacher can get information they want by reading books. They see that other children only a little older than they not only can read but thoroughly enjoy reading. A visit to a second grade reading class is a good stimulation. A visit from some second graders who read about something in which the children are particularly interested at the time is another good idea.

Children may suggest and the teacher write titles to pictures. With suggestions from the children, she may make charts with lists of duties with the names of the children responsible for each of them, or with plans for work or play. The children may read them back, largely from memory, of course, at first. The children recognize their own names and then an increasing number of other phrases and words. All these are strong interest factors in this business of learning to read.

Further, there must be a familiarity with the material to be read. Children are interested in reading about things they know about. This goes back to the

principles discussed in Chapter III on experiential background. This point needs rather careful consideration. The material to be read needs to be new in the sense that it is fresh, that to a certain extent the child gets new meaning from it. However, it must be based on concepts which are familiar. The words, phrases, thoughts involved must call up definite meanings to the child's mind. Even if the material is fanciful or about an unfamiliar place or experience, it must be interpreted in terms of concepts with which the child is familiar. If this is not true to a considerable extent the material is meaningless to him and can hardly be interesting.

This principle is one of the most important reasons for the development of chart material by the teacher and the group.² It furnishes material which is definitely within the understanding of the group. Furthermore, it makes use of an interest which is already well developed at that time.

Success. Success is even more important than familiarity, if relative importance may be given to indispensable factors. The child must feel that it is something he can do. His initial experiences with reading for the first year or so must be carefully guided so that they will be successful and happy. It is for this reason mainly that it is so important to study the children's abilities and constantly see that the pupils are placed in groups and provided with experiences which are suited to their levels of development. If they attempt or are forced into tasks

² Discussion of procedure for developing and using charts is given in Chapters VIII and IX.

for which they are not ready they can hardly help but fail. Thus time has been lost, little or no progress made and their interest seriously lessened. This point can not be stressed too much. This furnishing of experiences at the level of ability does not only mean slowing up the process for the less mature pupils, it means, just as surely, the providing of the more capable child with experiences as fast as he is ready to take them. If he is given work below the level of his ability he, of course, will be able to do it. But he may be bored with it. He will not have the feeling of success which comes from accomplishing a challenging task. He will lose some of the interest which he might have developed. Wrong attitudes and work habits hinder further progress.

This business of suiting the task to each child's abilities and needs at any particular time is immensely important. Not only does it make for most efficient learning but it helps to promote that driving force that makes the whole thing go.

Purpose. Of even more basic and far-reaching importance in developing interest is the factor of purpose. There are many things in which a child is interested, many things he wants to know to satisfy that curiosity, that thirst for information which all children show. When they find that their "what's" and "where's" and "why's" can be answered by reading, then reading has taken on a purpose. From the very beginning teachers and, later on, pupils should read only with a very definite purpose. Furthermore, pupils must be aware of that purpose. During the day questions arise. Instead of answering the ques-

tion the teacher will be wise to often say, "Let's find out." Then if possible she will locate a book or other reading matter from which she will read so that the pupils may answer their own questions from the information given. Thus from the beginning reading takes on meaning and purpose.

Specific habits and abilities. The specific habits and abilities discussed in Chapter IV need continued attention. The attention span should continue to increase and should be more under the child's control. Rational thinking and ability to follow direction should have ample opportunity for development. Besides these there are the specific habits of the mechanics of reading. They must learn to look from left to right and to come back to the left again one line down.

Utilizing Children's Experiences for Reading

In the preceding chapters one clearly recognizes that reading is contingent upon two factors—the child and his environment. The child should have actively shown a readiness for reading, and the environment should be challenging to him. Bringing these two factors constructively together assures the child's success in reading.

It has been pointed out that the child's success in reading is largely dependent upon his stage of physical, social, and ideational maturation. The type of reading experiences must be suited to the child's level of development if he is to learn to read well and happily.

His maturity is indicated by the child's emotional

balance, social behavior, speech and language. Social maturation may be considered to be the child's ability to take his place in his social world with a feeling of security and self-confidence.

Ideational maturity is affected by the child's background of experience. Does he use the ideas gained from his experiences? Is he self-directing on his level of expectancy? Can he express his ideas and needs in the English language? Does he have the needed vocabulary and the ability to put words together to express himself? Is the child at peace with the world, or is he being torn with unsolved problems and tensions created by the environment in which he lives? A troubled child is greatly handicapped in learning to read.

Child's main interest. At the stage of maturation when the child is ready to learn to read he is psychologically self-centered. He is finding out about his own environment and his relation to it. He is interested in his own experiences, and desires to express them. He wants an audience to listen to him. He is not so much interested in the experiences of others. What *he* wants, what *he* thinks, or what *he* has done are important, and his major interest is in communicating these ideas. This major interest gives the clue to the reading program. This reading program develops out of the child's experiences and his ability to express them adequately in oral language. It is functional from the very beginning. It is concerned with child meanings and therefore it should grow out of the child's oral language. The child's oral language may be translated into printed symbols and

become the basis of his reading experiences. The point of view expressed in this book is based upon the child's desire to explore and experience, and upon his longing to tell others of his experiences. It involves dynamic factors which are too often neglected in the reading process.

Such reading material is uniquely suited to the children of each given environment. It must be evolved largely locally. In general it will be the progressive symbolization of the ideas growing out of the experiences of each group of boys and girls. It need not be limited to beginning reading, for it is also a desirable and effective means of working with retarded readers.

The starting point of such reading material is first hand experiences and oral interpretation of the experiences. Success in reading is dependent upon what a child takes *into* the situation plus what he gets *out* of the situation. In other words, if he goes into the reading situation without adequate background of experiences to enable him to read meaning into the words, he has an unsatisfying experience. This will be discouraging, difficult, meaningless and may result in failure and dislike of reading. Many rural children are asked to read about city life with street cars, big department stores, beautiful parks and railroads when they have never been in such an environment. On the other hand, the child should enter the reading situation with a rich background of experiences and an eagerness and ability to express these ideas. These experiences and ideas must include those which he will soon be using. He feels secure and con-

fidant in the reading situation as he deals with words which symbolize these ideas. The chances are good that then he will be a success in the situation, and like reading.

After the child has had a certain amount of first hand experiences, visual aids may be used to recall these past experiences and ideas. The child might handle things which are connected with or vividly recall them. Later, pictures may be used as a stage of symbolization if they have a relationship to past experiences, or to familiar things, or to other familiar pictures. Still later, words are connected with experiences, ideas, things, or other familiar words. Thus the teacher builds up a gradual symbolization of ideas and the child is slowly inducted into the abstract process of reading.

The child progresses in reading-readiness experiences and at the same time is inducted into the abstract reading process through his oral language. He is gaining power in his ability to plan, to follow directions, to listen, to repeat, to see likenesses and differences, to relate sequentially experiences and procedures. He is also gaining the understanding that printed symbols contain ideas and that material is read from left to right.

Psychology teaches us that learning proceeds from the whole to the parts. In the type of reading development herein described the child sees and comprehends the whole; he sees the parts in relation to the whole. This is applied to seeing and comprehending the idea and the whole story before an attack is made on sentences or words. It also applies to

learning the word as a whole before it is broken into syllables and before learning the individual letters.

Reading should be a thought expression process in which pupils first learn to associate their ideas with a group of symbols, then later learn to identify individual symbols. Sight vocabulary develops as a result of the interpretation of the story. In the early stages of reading, word recognition must grow out of and be fitted into the reading content. Attitudes, habits, and skills grow and develop as an integral aspect of functional language development. They do not just happen. Rather, the wise teacher guides their development in such a setting.

Why hurry the introduction of book reading? The children are gaining power in reading abstract symbols, gaining a good sight vocabulary, attitudes and habits which predict success in and love of reading. The transition into book reading should be an enjoyable and successful experience. The children have learned that reading material contains many interesting and needed ideas. Many will make the transition of their own accord.

VIII

Building Experience Charts

In beginning reading nothing should be presumed. Reading is primarily a process of gaining meanings. Comprehension in reading consists of the interpretation of mental images. Experience is the only tool with which we can interpret anything. Our primary concern, as we have said, must be to build up the background of first-hand experiences in the children. Second, we must provide opportunity for them to use these in the interpretation of printed material; in other words, to read understandingly.

The type of chart work described in this book is based primarily upon vital experiences and interests of the children. Its use is not limited to any period of weeks preliminary to beginning book work, nor to any given grades. Charts have their basis in the actual classroom reading situations in the elementary school.

VALUES OF EXPERIENCE CHARTS

Teachers claim the following values are derived through basing beginning reading upon experience charts.

1. Experiential charts, as an outgrowth of school activities, are composed by the children, and contain

- their meaningful oral vocabulary; therefore, they are of interest to the children.
2. They make the reading process easier because the child's only problem is to connect the printed symbol with what he already knows and enjoys.
 3. They facilitate the establishment of good habits in the mechanics of reading because:
 - a. the reader's attitude toward the material is receptive;
 - b. his familiarity with the content contributes to rapid perception;
 - c. the teacher, in constructing the chart, utilizes mechanical means for providing ease in seeing the symbols and securing thoughts.
 4. They contribute to a growing interest in reading.
 5. They make reading functional from the beginning.
 6. The development of the coöperative experiential chart contributes to the child's sense of security in oral expression by:
 - a. helping the child to gain a meaningful vocabulary;
 - b. helping the child to establish a pattern of expression in
 - (1) sentences
 - (2) composition

How to Build Coöperative Charts

The following discussion presents the steps in developing a coöperative story:

Step I. Before attempting to draw chart stories from children, the teacher must be certain that the child has had an area of experience from which the chart is to be drawn. An area of experience might deal with an excursion, the home the children are building, or the garden they are making, the pets they are caring for, and so forth.

Step II. This step is a discussion period or time spent on developing ideas and clarifying concepts in relation to the experience which is the basis of the story. This is such a fundamental step that the teacher can profitably spend a great deal of time at this point. It is well to analyze the number and type of ideas expressed by the children; their manner of expressing their ideas; the concepts in the oral vocabulary used; and so forth.

Step III. In building a coöperative story, it is necessary to analyze the group information because a coöperative chart is an expression of group information. This is a step in which the teacher analyzes the common ideas of the group. If this is true, one can conclude that the richer the area is in experiences, the better the group as a whole is able to go back into that area of experience for ideas. In other words, a rich area of experience furnishes more common ideas for the group to express than a poor one does.

Step IV. Draw from the group an oral expression of the common ideas on a chosen subject. The teacher should write these sentences on the board as the group agrees the sentences are the ideas and expressions they wish to use. This step offers opportunity to help pupils see the relationship of their sentences and feel the unity of the story.

Step V. Print the story twice: Once on chart paper and again on lightweight tagboard for cutting.

Some teachers are disturbed about the size of some of the words used by the children or the type of expression used. Teachers feel that many of the words or phrases used are too big or too grown-up. The

teacher should then trace those words or phrases back through the above given steps to find out the sources of the expression. She should ask herself, "Do they find their source in the area of experience? Do they express ideas growing out of that experience? Are they clear concepts? Are they clear to these particular children?" and other similar questions. If so, then the children have a right to use them in their stories. Whenever possible the teacher should guide the children to use words which are in the basic list she is trying to develop. (See page 149.) This list should be consistent with the basic vocabulary of the books she plans to use later.

ILLUSTRATION OF THE USE OF CHARTS IN A GROCERY STORE UNIT

As an example of building coöperative charts from first hand experience, a grocery story unit is used. An excursion to the store is planned. The children help to plan where they are going, what they will see and what they want to find out. Following are two examples of charts which might develop during such planning. (See illustrations 5 and 6.)

The excursion to the store has been made. The amount of valuable experience and information acquired has been in direct proportion to the type and completeness of the planning and the extent to which the planning was carried out on the excursion itself. Now will follow much discussion to develop the area of ideas out of which many coöperative charts may be built. The teacher will draw from the group an

FIG. 5. We plan our trip to the grocery store.

Our Trip
We want to go
on a trip
We want to see
a grocery store
We want to see
a groceryman
We want to know
many things

We shall Ask
1. Do you pack
the big boxes?
2. Where do you
get the bread?
3. Where do you
get your eggs?
4. Do you pay
for things?
5. Do you deliver
your groceries?

FIG. 6. What shall we ask at the grocery store?



FIG. 7. First the children tell their story.

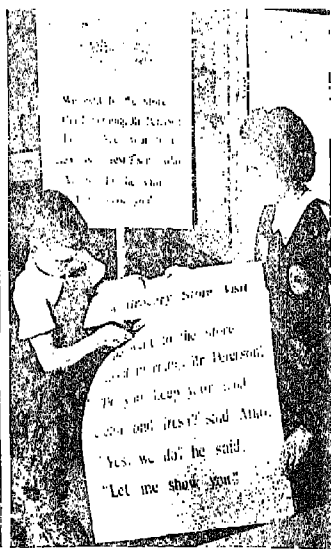
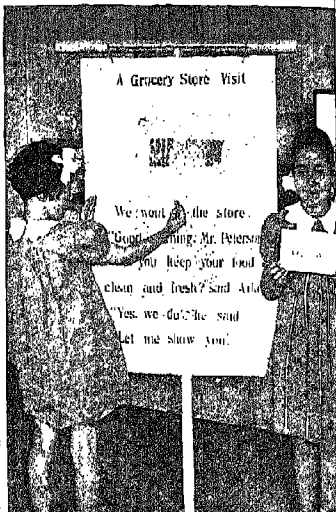
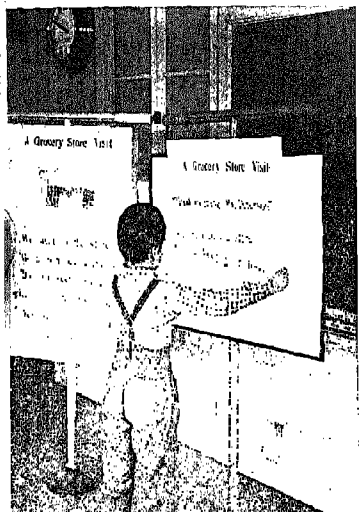


FIG. 8. Next day the teacher has two copies of it.

FIG. 9. Rebuilding sentences into the original story.

FIG. 10. Finding phrases in their story.



oral expression of ideas and facts gotten from the excursion. As the children unify their thoughts and findings through discussion they will decide on some one thing they want to talk more about. The teacher will write the children's sentences on the board which they agree best express what they wish to say. (See illustration 7.)

When a story has been completed on the board it is then ready for a chart. Let it be said here that many charts may develop from a single trip, each one growing out of some central idea in which the children are interested. The process to be described should in general be followed for each one. Later each may be brought out again for review purposes.

The teacher now prints two charts. The first is done on chart paper for the chart rack and the other on light weight tagboard for cutting into sentences and phrases. After reading the completed chart the children cut the tagboard chart into sentences. (See illustration 8. Later these sentences will be cut into phrases.) After the sentence is cut, it is read and matched with a sentence just like it in the chart on the rack. The sentence that was cut is now placed on the wall container. (See illustration 9.) The story is rebuilt in the container. This is done first by sentences then with phrases. Finally there is phrase recognition which is done by framing, by matching, or just reading from the cards. (See illustration 10.)

Chart Construction Techniques

Principles underlying chart construction. The point cannot be made too emphatically that charts

must be built very carefully considering the following principles:

1. Charts should be attractive from the standpoint of
 - a. neatness
 - b. balance.—In the beginning charts are composed of one-line sentences. These sentences should all begin evenly on the left hand side of the paper. Later each sentence takes a paragraph form; then the indentures are in line and the balance of the sentences which follows on the return sweep begins evenly on the left hand side. This keeps the same form as that followed when the child is able to read longer paragraphs.
 - c. illustrations.—Illustrations are placed at the top or bottom of the page. They may be pictures from magazines, teacher or pupil illustrations. They should contribute to the enjoyment or ease of thought-getting of the chart. It is important that the center of attention in the illustration be in or near the center of the picture. If it is too near the right of the picture it has a tendency to carry the eye and therefore the attention out of the picture. Simple mountings or border lines add to the attractiveness of the illustration and balance of the chart.
 - d. subject matter.—Charts should deal with children's recognized interests and needs. It is important that the concepts expressed grow out of children's emerging experiences. They must be appealing to the age group using the chart.
2. Charts should be sound in composition by
 - a. being child-like
 - b. being complete in sentence structure
 - c. expressing accuracy of ideas
 - d. expressing clearness of ideas

- e. appealing dynamically through movement, color, sound, rhythm and ideas.
3. Charts should facilitate the establishment of the mechanics of reading by being careful of, and consistent in, the use of
 - a. thought phrases
 - b. position of return sweep
 - c. context and picture cues
 - d. dynamic interest factors
 - e. repetition of vocabulary, phrases and concepts.

Mechanics of chart construction. If the chart is to be hung on the wall and used by the children as they sit in their seats, as is often the case in dictionary or direction charts, the type should be between one and one-half and two inches in height. If the chart is to be used in the group, the type should be about one inch in height, and if the chart is used at closer range, print one-half or three-quarters of an inch may be used.¹

1. Place illustrations at the top or bottom of the story or, as in dictionary charts, to the right side.
2. Place the title three inches from the top and well-centered.
3. Begin the first sentence three inches from the title.
4. Leave a one and one-half to two inch margin on the left hand side of the chart. Keep the right hand side even and uncrowded.
5. Leave three inches between each line when first beginning chart work; later it may be desirable to decrease that space.
6. Space words one inch apart.
7. Consider each sentence a paragraph and indent as

¹ This information was secured from Dr. Edward Lamb, Director, Department of Health, Santa Barbara City Schools.

a regular paragraph. As a child gains reading skill, longer paragraphs are desirable.

8. In the beginning break lines between phrases only. Since charts are used primarily for oral reading, phrase ideas just as the child naturally talks.
9. Words should be undivided.
10. Beginning *teaching* charts should be printed.
11. If using manuscript writing be careful of the proportion and spacing of the letters. See a good manuscript manual for guidance.

Materials Needed

Type. Three sizes of type are desirable. Two and one-half to three-inch to be used when the child needs to read across the room. Seven-eighths to one inch—to be used in reading circles. One-half to three-quarters of an inch—to be used at the desk.

Printing tools. If a lettering pen is used, a large broad-edge manuscript pen and India ink are needed.

A flattened large black crayon, kindergarten size, is excellent when used for lettering or manuscript writing as it gives good proportion to the letters.

The Cado Fountain Brush distributed by the Cushman-Dennison Company, New York, is a convenient tool to use in chart work. It is constructed similarly to a fountain pen, except that it has a felt wick instead of a pen point. The wick allows for making three sizes of letters. The special ink dries immediately and does not blur when used on cheap paper.

Paper. Light oaktag is needed for cutting into sentences, phrases, and words.

Three-inch ruled news, 24" x 36", cream-colored wrapping paper, or bogus are suitable for attractive charts.

Chart racks. These may be made of light-weight material which are inexpensive, easily made, and light to handle. One type is shown in illustrations 9 and 10. It is made of broom sticks or new lumber set in a metal holder. Others are simply wooden frames with two legs, each having a triangular foot for balance. Either side can be used or the charts can be turned over on the rings provided. Some racks are made in such a way that the top of the rack can revolve. In that way charts may be hung on both sides. In addition some teachers like to be able to thumb tack charts around the room.

Wall pocket containers may be purchased or made. (See illustration 9.) They are necessary for the children to use in rebuilding their charts from sentences or phrases.

IX

Using Experience Charts for Reading Readiness

Merely building experience charts coöperatively and placing them before children will not suffice to teach the average child to read. It is necessary for the teacher to see that connections are effected between ideas and symbols. She does this by:

1. Guiding the child's reading from the whole story to the sentence, then to the phrase, lastly to the word.
2. Providing enough exposure of words and phrases to assure learning.
3. Providing various situations in which the same vocabulary is used.
4. Keeping accurate account of the vocabulary used in the various charts as well as a record of the repetition of each word.
5. Individually checking the child's mastery of words and phrases.
6. Working toward a basic vocabulary which will aid in the transition from charts to basic readers.

Small meaningful vocabulary, lack of interest, timidity, and inadequate attention to content are all largely the result of the child's lack of background of experience. If the teacher supplies and then capi-

talizes upon the children's interesting experiences, she can help each child build up a meaningful oral vocabulary which produces mental images. Children lose their timidity to a great extent when they feel secure and interested in the thing which they are doing. If children are helped to translate these experiences into oral or written expression, they forget themselves and are eager to share those experiences with others.

Too often teachers take it for granted that children all know that reading proceeds from left to right. Perhaps one would be more justified in assuming this if writing were introduced before reading. Children who do not "catch on" to that fact must be taught effective eye movements from left to right. Teachers beginning chart work will do well to contribute to this learning by doing much writing on the board as children tell their stories. When the teacher reads the stories back to the children, she can slide her hand along smoothly under the sentences as she reads them. The children will then see how she returns to the left of the next line after completing the previous line. Often pupils do not realize that in speaking a word, pronunciation begins at the left. It is well when presenting a slowly pronounced word to sweep the hand under the word showing the child how the sound flows through the word. Realization of left-to-rightness helps to prevent the reversals.

In the classroom the teacher capitalizes on each situation which offers itself for a story. The children build up the story, and the teacher records it. Most of these recorded stories, which are called incidental

reading charts, should be a free expression of the child's thought.

The *teaching chart* differs from the incidental chart in that the teaching chart is guided expression drawn from the pupils. It is purposefully and necessarily guided in expression. The teacher is working toward developing and establishing certain concepts. She is also building a sight vocabulary which is basic in the pre-primers which she expects to use later with the class.

Incidental charts may develop into teaching charts. If there is considerable pupil interest in the chart and the concepts involved are as worthwhile as any others which might be developed at that time, the incidental chart may be modified or grow into a valuable teaching chart.

Stenographic records are here given of the development of coöperatively-built teaching charts on the first and third grade levels. Those on the third grade were developed with the low reading group. Following each developmental lesson are stenographic reports of chart-reading lessons on the day following the building of the charts.

DEVELOPING A CHART: I

Center of Interest: "The Home" (First Grade)

Before the teacher called the reading group, the children had been at work on various activities. Some were working in the garden out of doors; others had been painting the house. A group of girls was making

new curtains for the house, and still another group was just playing in the house.

The teacher gathered a small group around her. After all were sitting comfortably, the following conversation developed:

TEACHER. Do you think we could tell a story about the interesting things we have done today?

CHILDREN. Yes.

TEACHER. What could our story be about?

CHILD. The family who lived in our playhouse today.

CHILD. Our home.

CHILD. Our garden.

TEACHER. Yes. All those would be interesting. Did anything happen today that has not happened before? Do you remember our surprise today?

CHILD. Oh, yes.

CHILD. The seeds are coming up.

CHILD. I saw seeds in our garden.

CHILD. Seeds.

CHILD. Seeds are growing in our garden.

TEACHER. Do you think we could tell an interesting story about what has happened in our garden?
[All the children agreed. Then followed a period of free discussion about the gardens. They made a dramatization of their garden work in which the climax was their surprise in finding that their seeds were up.]

CHILD. We can call our story "Our Surprise."

CHILD. I know a story. We can say, "Our seeds are up."

TEACHER. Do you all think "Our Surprise" is a good name for our story?

Teacher wrote on the board:

OUR SURPRISE

CHILD. We need to say, "We have a garden."

TEACHER. All right. How many think that is a good way to begin our story?

[All agreed. Teacher wrote on the board under the title]:

We have a garden.

TEACHER. What else should we put in the story?

CHILD. We should tell where the garden is.

CHILD. We should tell how we made our garden.

CHILD. We should tell about watering.

TEACHER. Those are good suggestions. How would you like to tell us where the garden is, Romero?

ROMERO. *[Shyly pointing]* It is out there.

TEACHER. Yes, it is. You tell us where our garden is, Ann.

ANN. Our garden is in our school yard.

TEACHER. Do you like Ann's sentence, Romero? Is that the way you meant to say it?

ROMERO. *[Nodded "yes"]*

[Teacher wrote sentence under the first one.]

TEACHER. Let us read the sentence. You look while I read it to you.

[The teacher ran her hand under the sentence and read]:

We have a garden.

*Our garden is
in our school yard.*

CHILD. We left out seeds. We must say, "We planted seeds in our garden."

[Some thought they should tell about digging and making rows. After discussion they agreed to say]:

*We made five rows
in our garden.*

CHILD. Now we can say, "We planted seeds."

TEACHER. Do you all agree? Do you think we should tell where we planted the seeds?

- CHILD. In the garden.
CHILD. We planted seeds in the rows.
TEACHER. How many like John's sentence, "We planted seeds in the rows"?
CHILD. It is all the same. The rows are in the garden.
TEACHER. That is right. Now let us read our story again.
[Teacher read, running her hand under each line from left to right under the sentences]:

OUR SURPRISE

*We have a garden.
Our garden is
in our school yard.
We made five rows
in our garden.
We planted seeds
in the rows.*

- TEACHER. Now the surprise. Who wants to tell us about it?
CHILD. The seeds are up.
CHILD. Two little seeds are up.
TEACHER. Which sentence shall we use? They are just alike except that Sue has told us how many seeds are up.
CHILD. Let's use Sue's sentence.
[Teacher wrote]:

Two little seeds are up.

- TEACHER. Now who would like to show us where you will begin and how you will read the story? Slide your hand under the sentence as I did.
[Child followed directions, moving hand from left to right under each sentence.]
CHILD. I can read it.
TEACHER. Let us all read it softly together while I move my hand.

OUR SURPRISE

*We have a garden.
Our garden is
in our school yard.
We made five rows
in our garden.
We planted seeds
in the rows.
Two little seeds are up.*

READING LESSON BASED ON THE COÖPERATIVELY BUILT
CHART: I

Center of Interest: "The Home" (First Grade)

Time: Next day following the development of the chart.

The teacher had printed two copies of the chart story, one on tagboard and one on ruled chart news. The story on the ruled chart news hung on the chart rack before the children. The tagboard chart lay on a table near at hand. A chart holder hung on the wall.

The group was sitting on chairs in a semi-circle. The chart rack was in front of the children. The children were looking at their story on the rack.

OUR SURPRISE

*We have a garden.
Our garden is
in our school yard.
We made five rows
in our garden.
We planted seeds
in the rows.
Two little seeds are up.*

TEACHER. This is the story we built together yesterday. Who remembers what it was about?

CHILD. Our garden.

CHILD. Our surprise.

TEACHER. You are right. I like the way you remember. John, do you remember what the surprise was we found in our garden?

JOHN. Two seeds are up in our garden.

TEACHER. Who would like to tell us where we planted the seeds?

CHILD. In rows.

CHILD. In five rows.

TEACHER. You do remember our story. Let us read it together.

[The teacher runs her hands under the lines as she and the children read the story.]

TEACHER. *[Taking up tagboard chart]* I have a story here for you to look at.

CHILD. It's the same.

CHILD. It's "Our Surprise."

TEACHER. What sharp eyes you have. Sue, you take the scissors and cut off the part that says, "Our Surprise."

TEACHER. That is right. Now hold it under the line on the chart rack that says, "Our Surprise." *[Sue does as directed.]* Did Sue do it right, boys and girls?

CHILDREN. Yes.

TEACHER. After you read it, Sue, you may put the name of our story in the chart holder. We will cut off our sentences, match them with the sentences on the chart rack, read the sentences, then build our story in the chart holder.

[The teacher worked with the pupils, encouraging and helping them. She utilized the same spirit to build up sight recognition of sentences. Later the sentences were cut into phrases, and the group worked to rebuild the story, using the phrase units, and working for

sight recognition of certain common phrases. Later, games were played with the words. On succeeding days, after the individuals gained ability to match, rebuild, and recognize sentences, phrases and words, the tagboard units were put aside and the children worked only with the complete story as it hung on the chart.]

TEACHER. Let us each read our story through with our eyes only. Where do you see "in our garden"? *[A child went up and found "in our garden." He cupped his hands around the words, thus making a frame about the phrase.]*
Who can find where we planted our seeds? We will read with our eyes and then raise our hands.

TEACHER. Bonnie?

TEACHER. Is that right, boys and girls?

TEACHER. Marion, put your hands around the word which tells us how many rows we had in our garden. Bill, you find the word which tells us how many seeds came up.

TEACHER. That is splendid. Now who would like to point out all the little words that say "We"? All right, Joe. The rest of you watch carefully and count them to yourself so that you can tell me how many times Joe finds it.
[The teacher closed the lesson with a little postman game which was in reality a sight recognition word game.]

DEVELOPING A CHART

Center of attention: "Mexico."

Group: A slow moving reading class in the third grade. The children had been studying about Mexico for some time and had made many charts as a basis for their

reading lessons. *They were to see a film titled "Mexican Children," and spent a little time re-reading the chart stories which they had made to remind them of what they had written so they could check their stories with the film they were about to see.*

After they had seen the picture, they thought they would like to write a story about "Mexican Homes."

TEACHER. What ideas do you have that we could put in our story about Mexican homes?

TONY. We should tell about the patio.

VALENTINO. Their houses were made of adobe.

ART. Their houses had red tile roofs.

TEACHER. Those are good ideas. Two tell about the house itself and the other tells about the patio.

ERNEST. Some families have fountains in the patio.

MARIA. We should tell how they made the adobe stick together.

THERESA. They slept on petates. They didn't have chairs.

TEACHER. Shall we make this story about the outside or the inside of the house?

[The group decided to make this story about the outside, then later make one about the inside. After some discussion whether to call the story "Mexican Homes" or "Homes in Mexico," they decided on "Adobe Houses." The teacher had written the ideas on the board as the children gave them. They now served as sources of ideas for the new chart.]

TEACHER. What idea would make a good start for our story?

TONY. I think we should say, "Mexico has many adobe houses."

TEACHER. Do you like that sentence?

[One or two thought it would be better to say, Mexican houses are built of adobe." Since this might imply

that all Mexican houses were built of adobe it was decided to leave Tony's sentence stand as stated.]

MARIA. I think we should tell about the red roofs next.

TEACHER. Do you think we should explain what adobe houses are?

[The children talked it over and decided the story thus far would read]:

ADOBE HOUSES

Mexico has many adobe houses. Adobe houses are made of adobe clay bricks. The bricks are dried in the sun. The clay bricks are held together by a sticky mud mortar.

[Now they were ready for the red tile roofs.]

ART. That was my idea. We could say, "The houses had red tile roofs."

HORTENSIA. I would like to say, "Red tile roofs make the adobe houses look pretty."

[Again the teacher led the discussion, evaluating the contribution of the two sentences to the story. The group decided on Hortensia's sentence.]

TEACHER. Who can read our story this far so we can see if it all goes together nicely. All right, Art, you read the story. We will help you.

ADOBE HOUSES

Mexico has many adobe houses. Adobe houses are made of adobe clay bricks. The bricks are dried in the sun. The clay bricks are held together by a sticky mud mortar. Red tile roofs make the houses look pretty.

VALENTINO. Now we can tell about the patio and the fountain.

TEACHER. Theresa, wouldn't you like to help us with that sentence?

THERESA. They have a patio in front of houses.

VALENTINO. You didn't tell about the fountain.

ERNEST. All patios don't have a fountain.

MARIA. The children play in the patio.

[The teacher saw that they agreed on the patio, so the discussion centered on what idea they wished to express. Did they wish to stress the fountain or the children in the patio? Some of the group thought they should show that someone lived in the house so they decided to say, "There is a patio in front of the house. The children like to play in the patio."]

TEACHER. May I read it to you? *[She moved her hand left to right under the lines as she read.]*

ADOBE HOUSES

Mexico has many adobe houses. Adobe houses are made of adobe clay bricks. The bricks are dried in the sun. The clay bricks are held together by sticky mud mortar. Red tile roofs make the houses look pretty. There is a patio in front of the house. The children like to play in the patio.

Tomorrow I will print it for you. Will you have your picture ready to illustrate it?

READING LESSON BASED ON THE COÖPERATIVELY BUILT CHART II

In front of the room stood the chart rack with the story upon it which the children had written the day before. At the top of the chart was a picture of a Mexican house drawn by one of the group. Children could be seen playing in the patio.

- TEACHER. This is the story we wrote yesterday. Perhaps I had better read it to you first.
[*She read the chart to the children.*]
Do you think you could read it?
[*One of the children wished to try it.*]
- TEACHER. You may read it, Theresa. You try it. I will help you.
[*Theresa read the chart.*]
- TEACHER. Very nice, Theresa.
- TEACHER. [*Addressing another child.*] Would you like to read it?
[*Child read it.*]
- TEACHER. Shall we have it read once more?
[*Another child read it.*]
- TEACHER. I wonder who can find the sentence that tells what the Mexican houses are made of.
[*One of the children went to the chart, found the sentence, and repeated it aloud.*]
- TEACHER. Shall we tell her if it is correct?
- CHILD. Correct.
- TEACHER. Who can find the sentence that tells how the bricks are dried?
[*Child went through the same procedure as above.*]
- CHILD. Correct.
- TEACHER. Who can find the sentence that tells how the adobe bricks are held together.
[*Same procedure as above.*]
- CHILD. Correct.
- TEACHER. And the sentence that tells about the tile roofs?
[*As above.*]
- CHILD. Correct.
- TEACHER. Where does it tell about the patio?
[*As above.*]
- TEACHER. Now, where does it tell about the children?
[*As above.*]

- TEACHER. Could someone read the entire story again?
[*Child did.*]
- TEACHER. I would like to have Art find the sentence that tells about the sticky mud mortar.
[*The same procedure was followed by the children here. This time the teacher did not take the sentences in their logical order, but skipped around.*]
- TEACHER. Maria, can you find the place that says just "adobe clay bricks?"
[*Child went to chart, found the phrase, and repeated it out loud.*]
- CHILD. Correct.
- TEACHER. "Red tile roofs"?
[*Same procedure as above. This continued with such phrases as "in front of the house," "in the patio," "look pretty," "sticky mud mortar," etc.*]
- TEACHER. That was very nice. Let's read it through just once more.
[*Glass did so.*]
- TEACHER. I have some words I picked out of the story. Do you want to see if you know them? If you know them, you may raise your hand.
[*The teacher had taken some of the single words from the story, such as "patio," "adobe," etc., and some phrases, such as "are dried," "like to play," etc. and had printed them on flash cards. She went through these one by one, around the group. As the teacher held up the card, the child repeated the word. One child had difficulty, so the teacher said:*]
- TEACHER. Theresa, will you take the word over on the chart and see what sentence has that word in it?
[*Child read the whole sentence.*]

TEACHER. What is the word you are holding?
[Child repeated the word. The teacher then went through the single words again, drilling as before. One child, on having the phrase, "sticky mud mortar" presented to him, looked first at the chart, and found the sentence with "sticky mud mortar" in it, said it over in his mind, and then said the phrase "sticky mud mortar" aloud.]

TEACHER. We have gone through the cards. As I hold up the word, take it to the chart, find the sentence that the word is in, read the sentence, and then read the word.

[The teacher then went through her cards, following the above procedure. One little boy had the phrase, "held together." He found it in the sentence, read the sentence aloud, but failed to read the word or phrase.]

TEACHER. I didn't hear you.

[The child then went back to the chart, found the sentence again, read it, and then read his word.]

TEACHER. Good.

TEACHER. We will read the story once more.

[Valentino offered to read it.]

TEACHER. Let's see if he can read it. Nice clear voice and smoothly.

[Child read it.]

TEACHER. Did you like the way Valentino read it?

TEACHER. We have just another minute. Would you like to play a game with your words?

CLASS. Yes.

[A game was then enjoyed.]

X

Making the Transition from Charts to Books

Every child looks forward to the time when he will have a book of his own to read. It makes him feel very grown up and scholarly. This is a sacred feeling which should be cherished, guarded, and preserved by seeing that the child's transitional experience from charts to book is a happy, successful one. The preservation of the child's self-integrity is dependent upon success and freedom from worry at this time.

What can the teacher do to protect this child?

First, the teacher can determine whether or not the child has mastered the elementary skills through his chart work; whether he can read rhythmically from left to right; whether he has word-recognition skills, and can gain meaning from the chart content. Secondly, the teacher can investigate the child's reading vocabulary. No child should enter his first reading book until he has a sight vocabulary large enough and rich enough in ideas to insure him success in this new phase in reading.

If the teacher is satisfied with her investigation, then she may safely plan the child's entrance into books.

Preliminary to the child's entrance into books, and

during the time of chart teaching, the teacher may do some basic work for book teaching; for instance, a chart story may be printed on 12" x 18" bogus or similar paper. This single story may be held on the lap and read or used in connection with the chart story. It is a real problem to sit on a little chair and learn to manage a book on the lap or in the hands. This large paper with a familiar story helps in overcoming that problem.

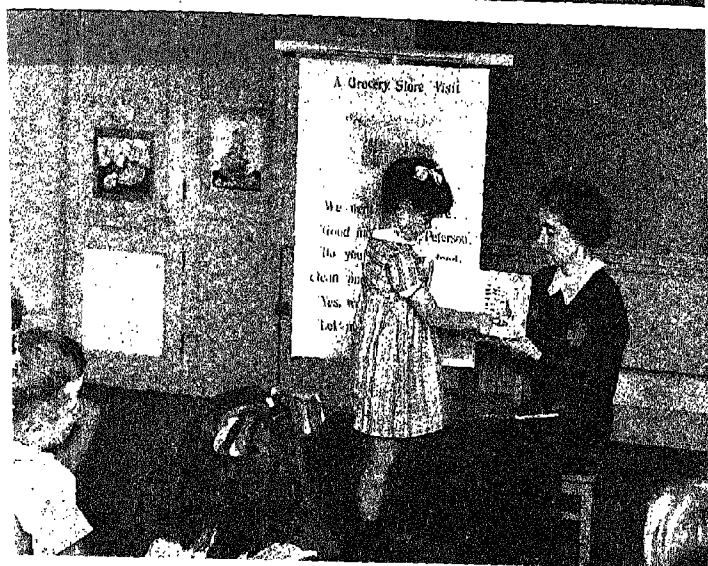
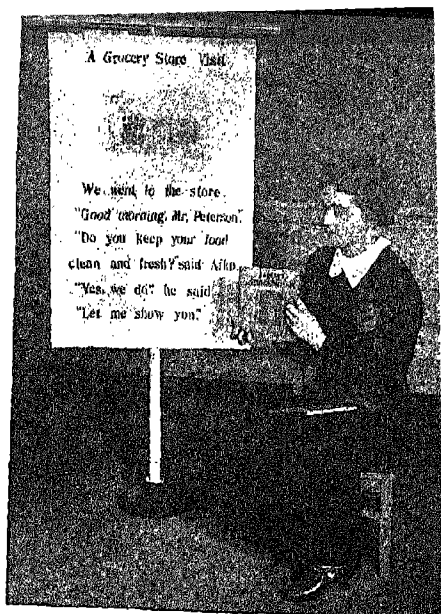
The chart stories may be duplicated and placed in various size booklets. These may be used for library books or by the children in the reading groups. Through the use of such books the children become familiar with the technique of handling books and learn to manage them during the period they are working with them.

Children's illustrations and songs can be made into little books for them to enjoy and handle.

One of the most vital experiences a teacher can offer the child is in the form of an awakening to the realization that books contain reading material about his interest, thereby making the transition very desirable.

One means of transition for a certain unit. Perhaps the class is studying about the grocery store. They may have visited a store, have made their own store, and be carrying on business in a realistic manner. The teacher and class working together have made many stories about the store, which the teacher has placed on charts for them to read or use for reference. The teacher knows of interesting little books which these children are capable of reading or which

Figs. 11 and 12. A book tells about a grocery store too.



have stimulating pictures and captions. Here is an opportunity to make a transition into books which offer promise of successful reading experiences.

The teacher might show the class a book, the title of which would indicate that it concerned the grocery store. Perhaps a child would recognize the word "grocery" on the cover and tell the class.

"We have made stories about the grocery store. I have a book of stories about the grocery store written by a lady. I wonder if her stories are like ours? Let us compare the names of our stories." (See illustration 11.)

The class reads the titles and decides that the stories are about the same thing.

"Yes," the teacher might say, "this book is about the grocery store. I wonder if it is a store like ours or like one we have seen?" Discussion will follow and a desire to read stories written by someone else will be stimulated.

The class and teacher then discuss the pictures and compare what they see in the pictures with their store and those they have seen. (See illustration 12.) The teacher may have certain paragraphs in mind for them to read together and discuss, thereby piquing their interest in the book. Finally the group decides to read the book.

Another way. The teacher may have several books about the grocery store on the reading table. Perhaps some point has come up for discussion and the children need more information. The group discusses ways of finding answers, and someone offers the suggestion of looking at pictures in a book. The

teacher is waiting for this suggestion so she sends them to the table to find books which tell about a grocery. Some children recognize the word "store" or "groceryman" on the covers; others select a book by the pictures. In the discussion of the books, the teacher makes the reading of the books very desirable from the standpoint of interest and need.

Some suggestions. Before the children enter a reader, it is well to analyze the experiences recorded in the book. Compare the book experiences with those experienced by the children. If the children lack any of those recorded in the book, and it is necessary to read the entire book, see that a background of meaning is built up for them before exposing them to the written record.

Some teachers build up a series of charts with children around those experiences recorded in the book. These charts are made into little booklets and read by the children. Then, when the children enter the reader, it is not startlingly new, but seems to be a familiar friend, and the reading is joyously done because it is a successful experience with the child.

Another teacher takes a copy of the book apart. She places each page which she anticipates will be troublesome to the children on a chart in the position of a picture. She then duplicates the page in large print under the page picture. Before the class reads this page in the book, she uses this chart and the page picture in a comparison reading situation. They read the large-type story and compare it with the original page story. The large story is much easier to work with.

CONTROLLING THE READING FACTORS

A basic vocabulary. It is of paramount importance that teachers be conscious of the child's reading vocabulary as well as his speaking vocabulary. No one today can say that any particular list of words is the "right" basic vocabulary for children. Authorities differ widely not only as to a basic vocabulary for readers but also as to the way in which it should be determined.¹ If reading is to be functional, the vocabulary of a locale as well as the vocabularies of the various child-life situations of today must be considered in choosing a basic list.

Readers not only differ as to basic vocabulary but there is a wide difference in the number of words presented in any one book. There was a time when it was thought that mere repetition of the words would insure sight recognition. It is now understood that reading is a unified process and that mere repetition alone is not enough to insure recognition of a word. There are many factors involved, such as the sentence setting of the word, the concept behind the word, the rate of development of the concepts involved, vividness of the presentation and the interest factor.

The teacher's problem is "How shall I determine

¹ E. W. Dolch, "A Basic Sight Vocabulary," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 26 (February, 1936), pp. 456-460.

T. G. Foran, "The Vocabulary of Primary Readers," *Catholic Educational Review*, Vol. 33 (December, 1934), pp. 596-607.

Garrett E. Rickard, "The Recognition Vocabulary of Primary Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 29 (December, 1935), pp. 281-291.

a basic reading vocabulary for my particular group of beginning readers?" First of all, a teacher should analyze the children's common environment, their common experiences in that environment and the common speech resulting from it. From these she can determine the words that children need to express themselves in that environment. Next she should analyze the children's school experiences to determine the words that children need to function in that situation. And finally the teacher should examine the words that they need to express their developing interests such as those in their units, readers, etc.

A basic vocabulary resulting from this type of study becomes functional and developmental in speech and in reading. Those words that function over and over again in reading situations are the ones which become the basic sight vocabulary.

Increasing sight vocabulary. In the child's early experiences in reading abstract symbols (words), teachers are faced with the problem of developing sight recognition of words. At first the children tell their stories and see the teacher write the words which symbolize their spoken words. Next the teacher re-reads the story and the total story becomes fixed in the memory. In other words, memorization is a part of the early steps in reading, but only a momentary one, for the teacher hastens on to break the total pattern down into sentences, phrases, and words.

It is the word phase of teaching reading that often bothers teachers. How to teach sight recognition of words without interfering with the flow of thought is a real problem. For a long time phonetic teaching

was the only attack on the recognition of words but today that is a minor phase of beginning reading.

Ear training is important in the recognition of the initial and the ending sounds. This brings speech work in close relationship to beginning reading. Helping children learn to use their lips, tongue, and teeth properly in the formation of speech sounds aids enunciation of words. Thus clear-cut speech facilitates hearing-recognition of sound elements which make up the words. Whether working in speech or working in reading, words are used as a total unit. Many stories and poems for speech development have been written around "pop-corn" because *p* is a sound for children to develop. *Pop* is developed as a total word, not *p* sound, nor *p-op* but *pop* as an exaggerated, clear-cut whole.

Association is a very useful practice in developing sight vocabulary. Words may be associated with experiences that the children have had, with pictures or dramatization. Teachers find this simple method very convenient for they can say to the children

"What does this word tell us we did?"

"What is the boy in the picture doing?"

"Who can show us what this word says?"

Getting the word by context cues eventually becomes one of the most useful aids. Adults use this method of reading and manage to read understandingly when they could not use the difficult words nor define them. By this method the child learns to skip the word he does not know and reads through the sentence to get the thought. Then he returns to the

word again and guesses it through the meaning of the whole. A little skillful guidance by teacher-questioning is a help in developing this power.

Configuration helps pupils especially with large words. Noting the tall letters or those that go below the line or peculiar shaped words serve as aids to the children.

Games built around words or phrases offer a new challenge to the children. Such games can be played by individuals or groups of children throughout the day when free time presents itself.

Simple, easy reading materials either made from the chart experiences or selected from the simpler commercial materials encourage learning to read by reading. The children need to meet the same words in many situations. If the material is simple in construction and familiar in experience, children will read.

Selecting pre-primers. If possible books to be used should be selected at the opening of the school term after the teacher has had an opportunity to analyze her class. They should be selected with the particular class and their anticipated experiences in mind. The first books should be chosen because they will be interesting to the boys and girls, and because the concepts dealt with in the book are concepts which will be familiar to the pupils at least by the time they need the books. The mechanical make up of the book should further ease of reading. The pictures should be simple and to the point of the story, child-like and challenging. The development of the story should proceed slowly enough for the children to

grasp the ideas but not so slowly that ideas are dealt with in a boring fashion. It is easily possible for children to be bored with the wrong type of reading material. The material should serve some need in the child's life and be selected according to his ability. If the material is too difficult, it may block the child's desire to read, for he will feel that he cannot cope with the situation. However, if the material has a sufficiently dynamic connection with the child's needs, his interest may overcome a certain amount of difficulty in reading. When working for comprehension, interesting, easy-to-read material should be used and the context should give clues to most of the unfamiliar words. Teachers must plan for pupil success and satisfaction in the reading process by the careful selection of material.

Books should be selected so that there is considerable overlap in vocabulary, particularly in basic vocabulary. This overlapping allows selection of books about different topics to meet or broaden children's interests, but still gives the desired repetition of basic words. The vocabularies of the books under consideration should be tabulated. From this tabulation those which have the greatest overlap of basic words can be quickly located. If they have previously met the other standards set for the selection of texts, particularly difficulty and interest, then these are probably the most valuable books to use.

Vocabulary for experience charts. A tabulation of the vocabularies of the pre-primers to be used is a most valuable aid when considering the words to be used in experience charts. Here again we want over-

lap. We want the child to be familiar with as many of the words in his first book as possible when he begins reading in it. Of course the charts should not be limited to such words, but the teacher should have this material in mind when she is helping the children to build their charts.

The following chart illustrates the manner in which one teacher studied her vocabulary problem.

Nip and Tuck, *Spot and Tom's Trip* were pre-primers selected by the teacher. She also had the supplementary aids available for them. In addition to these the teacher considered *Mac and Muff*, *Tom and Don* and *Going to School*. She studied the last three because she was fairly sure of their overlapping vocabulary. However, she did not have the amount of supplementary materials available for these that she had for the first three.

The teacher analyzed the experiences presented in the six readers and considered them in light of the total curriculum for her grade. She found that all the readers tied in well with the anticipated experiences for the year.

Next she made a vocabulary list for the six readers. After each teaching chart was developed, the teacher checked the vocabulary with the vocabulary of the readers. Twenty-six teaching charts were presented (many more incidental charts were developed) before the teacher felt that the group of pupils was ready to enter one of the pre-primers. The checked words in the list were duplicated and the teacher took each child individually to record his sight recognition of words. She compiled a list of the words recognized by

the group and checked it against the readers to determine which reader had the most words known by the children. This was the book she decided to use first. She wanted reading from the first book to be a particularly happy, satisfying experience.

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS OF SOME PRE-PRIMERS AND
EXPERIENCE-STORY CHARTS

WORDS A	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
a	X		X	X	X	X	X			
all		X	X				X			
and	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
are			X		X	X	X			
at				X	X	X	X			
away		X		X	X	X	X			
B										
Baby				X	X	X				
back							X			
ball	X			X	X	X	X			
bang							X			
bathroom							X			
bed			X	X	X	X	X			
bedroom							X			
black							X			
blue							X			

The blank columns at the right and at the end of the list are for the use of those teachers who may wish to compare other books with those analyzed here. Additional words may be added at the end of the list.

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
Bob	X			X	X	X				
boys						X				
bow-wow	X	X		X	X	X				
branches							X			
bricks							X			
brush							X			
busy							X			
C										
cage							X			
cake					X					
can				X	X	X	X			
canary							X			
came		X					X			
chairs							X			
chase							X			
chicken							X			
colors							X			
come	X		X	X	X	X	X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
comes							X			
company							X			
costumes							X			
D										
did		X		X	X	X	X			
dinner			X				X			
dishes							X			
does							X			
dog							X			
Don							X			
dresser							X			
E										
eat							X			
eggs							X			
eyes							X			
F										
Father	X		X	X	X	X				
find				X	X	X	X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS H	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
had		X					X			
hall						X				
Hallowe'en							X			
hammer							X			
had							X			
have			X				X			
having							X			
he	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
heard							X			
her		X					X			
here	X			X	X	X	X			
hide							X			
his							X			
home		X	X			X	X			
house							X			
I										
I		X	X				X			
in		X	X				X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
is	X		X	X	X	X	X			
it	X	X					X			
J										
jack-o-lantern							X			
jump		X					X			
jumps	X						X			
K										
kitchen							X			
kitten				X	X	X	X			
L										
lays							X			
like				X	X	X	X			
likes	X						X			
little	X		X				X			
live							X			
lives							X			
living							X			
look	X			X	X	X	X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
looks							X			
looked		X	X	X	X	X	X			
M										
Mac				X	X	X				
made			X				X			
make							X			
making							X			
masks							X			
me	X		X	X	X	X	X			
Mickey							X			
Miss						X				
mirror							X			
Mother	X	X	X	X	X	X				
Muff				X	X	X				
my	X						X			
N										
Nancy			X	X	X	X				
name							X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
near							X			
new							X			
nice							X			
not				X	X	X	X			
O										
of		X					X			
on							X			
one		X		X	X	X	X			
our							X			
out	X	X					X			
P										
painting							X			
party					X					
parties						X				
palm tree							X			
peek-a-boo							X			
Pekingese							X			
pictures							X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories Charts (26)</i>			
saw		X					X			
scares							X			
school						X	X			
scratch							X			
see	X	X		X	X	X	X			
she	X			X	X	X	X			
sings							X			
sink							X			
someone							X			
splash							X			
squirrel							X			
stove							X			
Susie-Q							X			
swing							X			
T										
table				X	X	X	X			
takes							X			
tails							X			

VOCABULARY ANALYSIS—*Continued*

WORDS	<i>Nip and Tuck</i>	<i>Spot</i>	<i>Tom's Trip</i>	<i>Mac and Muff</i>	<i>Tom and Don</i>	<i>Going to School</i>	<i>Experience Stories</i> <i>Charts (26)</i>			
U										
under				X	X	X	X			
us			X				X			
V										
visit			X				X			
W										
walk							X			
wallpaper							X			
wash							X			
was		X	X				X			
want				X	X	X	X			
wanted				X	X	X				
we				X	X	X	X			
wear							X			
went		X	X				X			
what		X		X	X	X	X			
where				X	X	X				
white							X			
will							X			

XI

Using Experience Charts in the Broader Reading Program

Ideas and stories discussed in the reading program are not the only materials available for reading charts. Anything in which the children are interested may be the basis for a series of such charts. Units of work which the children are planning and carrying out are the most frequent sources of these useful reading aids. The various stages of planning can be represented by charts, from the first general plan down through to the specific plans on some particular job. The progress and the results can be the subject of further charts. Dramatic play can be a source for a different kind of chart. Many experiences either planned or unplanned can be the sources of many incidental charts. Some of these may develop into reading charts if the interest of the children and value of the subject matter warrant. Illustrations of charts from these various sources and of these types are given.

Dramatic Play and Chart Work. The children had visited the nurses' home and had made their charts about it. When these were complete, they re-read them to get the whole story. The children now want to "play nurse" so they do all the things which their stories have told about. The "nurse" calls on a

mother at home (see illustration 13.) The "mother" takes her "baby" to the clinic. She has it weighed and measured (14). Then the clinic doctor examines it and gives the "mother" free advice about the care of her "baby" (15).

Utilizing Charts as aids to unit development. This series of six pictures illustrates how one teacher with a class of third grade pupils utilized charts to unify the development of their unit.

The pupils decided to keep a record of their plans in order that they might use the record for reference. They were planning their goals, what they wanted to do, and how they wished to work to carry out their goals. Since they had other records in the classroom they made a cover page titled "Plans for Work and Study of Switzerland."

In the record they recorded such things as: "We Will Find Out About" (16). On several pages they set up a series of things they wished to investigate, followed by their outline for study (17).

Other classes may prefer to set up a series of questions they wish to answer, while still others may make topical headings and then develop a series of problems or questions around the given heading.

This particular group of children developed in their set of records a list of things they would like to do which they felt would give them better insight into life in Switzerland (18). Then they set up their work plans or committees to carry on the work (19-20). As the pupils investigated these topics, problems, or questions, they built paragraphs or stories or other means of organizing their information

around "What we found out." One chart brought together facts about trade (21).

Often, as the work progresses, a group needs to change its plan or make more definite plans for completion of work. These too should be recorded.

Series of records of this type are to be encouraged for it is invaluable in helping children learn to plan, to be systematic about their work, to organize their attack on the problems and their work as it develops. It is a great aid in helping pupils to recall their plans and evaluate their work and to progress in the light of their plans. In other words, such a series synthesizes the unit work.

Incidental charts. Incidental charts may be of a variety of kinds and for a variety of purposes. They may be a single chart or a series. They may capitalize on the happening of the day. Many times children bring to school things interesting to them. They like to tell the class about their things. The teacher who is alert to reading opportunities may wish to make little books for the reading table utilizing these interests of children.

Charles brought his ducks to school, and one teacher made an attractive book utilizing this experience. The cover was made of stiff boards nicely covered and lined with two shades of orange. The two pages in the book were tagboard. The book opens flat with the picture of the ducks on the left side and the story on the right. Children get a great deal of enjoyment out of such books (illustration 22).

It is possible and profitable to develop a series of charts around any developing interest or experience

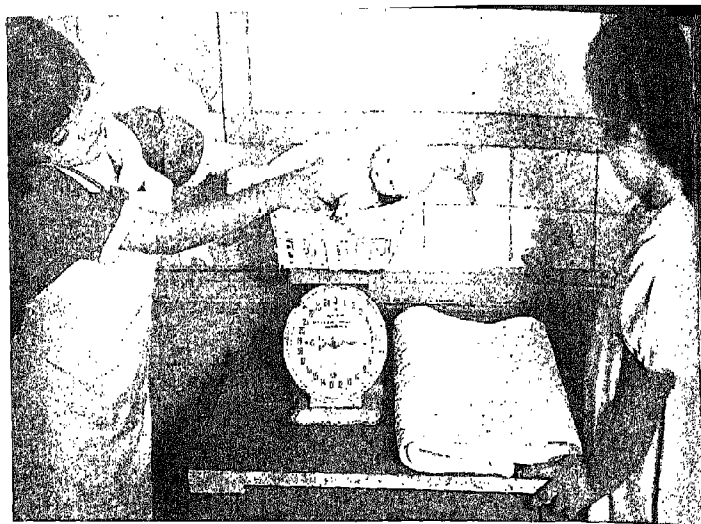
in the classroom. This type of chart work needs to be encouraged, for in a series of charts of this sort it is possible to secure a functional vocabulary and to furnish repetition of words used. Through a series of related charts, ideas as well as words may be repeated.

Suggestions for chart topics which are suitable for inclusion in such a series for all grades from kindergarten on might be:

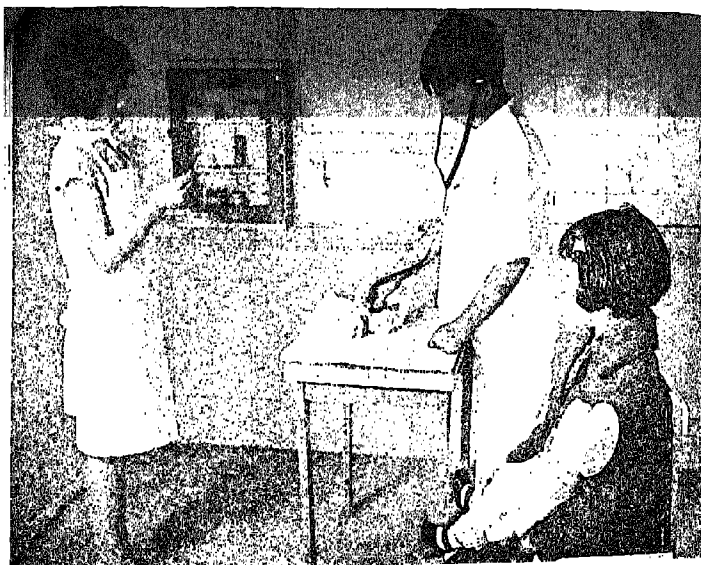
1. *What we want to know.* A series of questions which might be asked by the children about a certain problem would be recorded on such a chart or series of charts.
2. *What we found out.* The questions above may be checked off as the children find the answers and record them on other charts or in some other way.
3. *What we need to work with.* This might include a list of tools or materials needed.
4. *What we want to bring from home.* Schools are often short of tools, supplies, samples, or exhibits which the children may volunteer to bring.
5. *What we want to make.* This as well as item 4 may also list the names of committee members.
6. *Where we want to go or What we want to see.* These might be excursion possibilities or the planning of one particular excursion.
7. *Questions to ask on the excursion.*
What we found out on our excursion.
8. *Suggestions for study.*
9. *Work plans.*
10. *Diary of daily development of the work plans.*
11. *Directions for following out some of the work plans.*
12. *Rules and standards for work.*
13. *Narrative of the information gathered.*

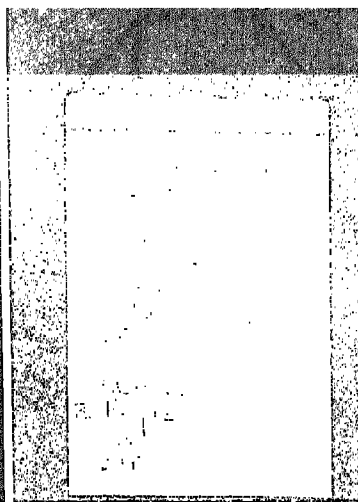
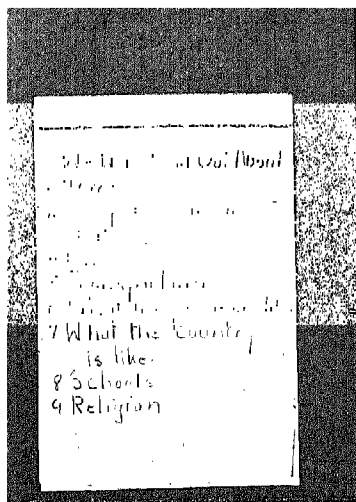


FIG. 13. Children dramatize information gained on a recent excursion. Here Nurse calls on Mother and Baby.

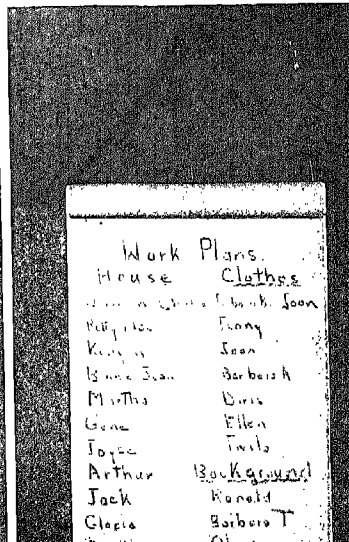
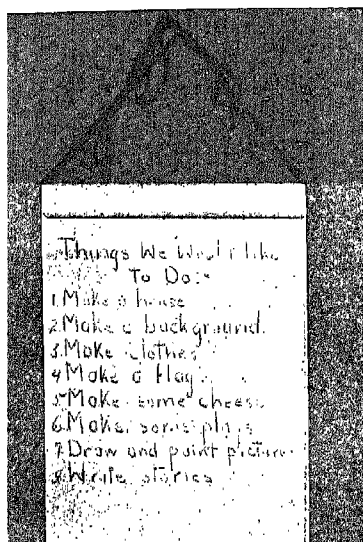


FIGS. 14 and 15. At the clinic Baby is weighed and examined.





Figs. 16 to 19. Plans for work and study—Switzerland.



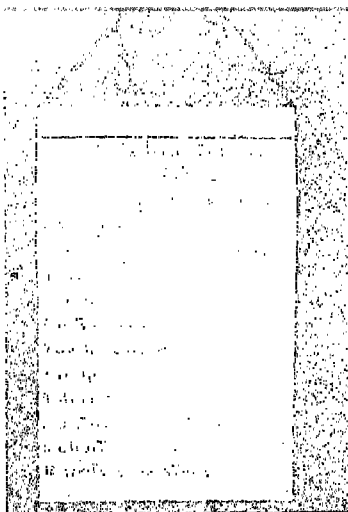


FIG. 20. Working plans for the study of Switzerland.

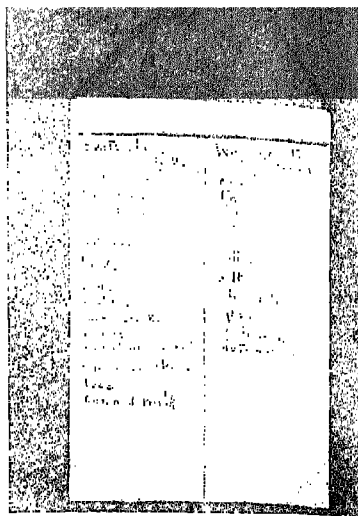
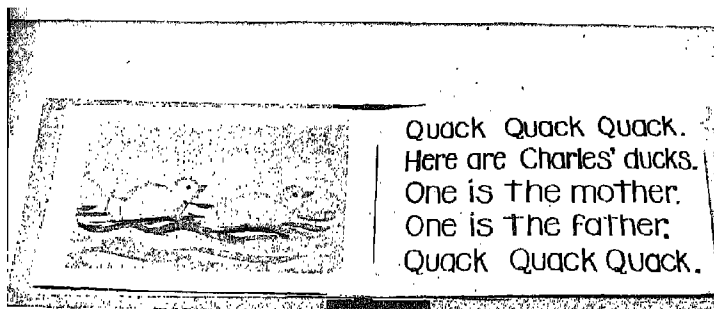
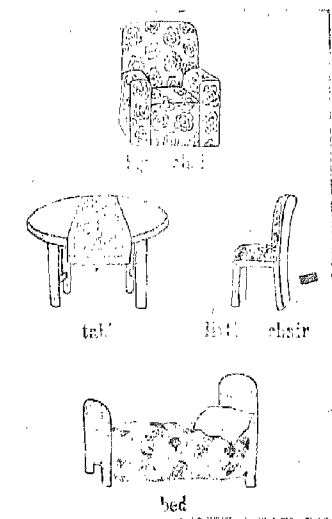


FIG. 21. Summarizing some information.

FIG. 22. Charles brought his ducks to school, so—this incidental chart.





FIGS. 23 and 24. Dictionary charts.

FIG. 25. A name chart.

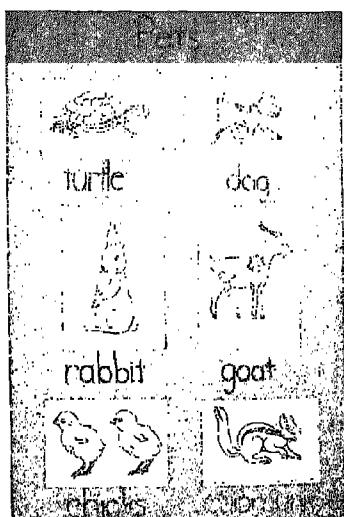
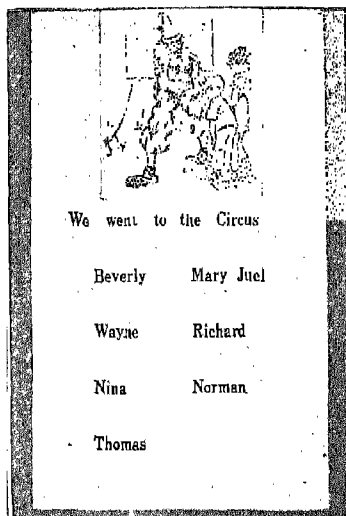
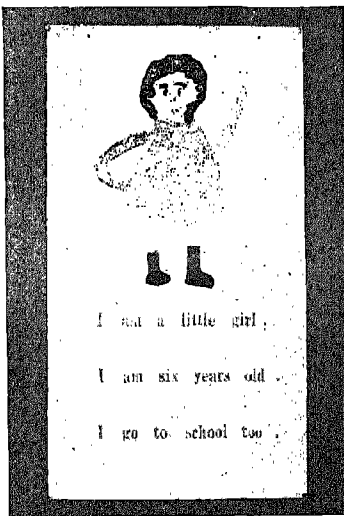
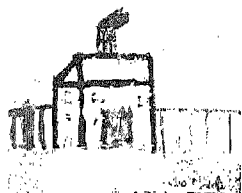


FIG. 26. A little girl's own story and picture.





Our address is
311 W Padre Street,
Santa Barbara
California.

A good sport can

play fairly.
share the balls.
lose cheerfully.
think of others.
have self-control.

Figs. 30-33. A variety of types of good and useful charts.



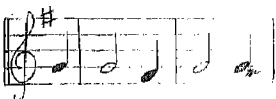
The milkman comes
to our house.
He brings the milk
for our breakfast.
He brings it in bottles.
He drives a horse.

Yes


No

1. The postman comes twice a day.
2. The post office is open all the time.
3. Airplanes do not carry mail.
4. Trains carry mail.
5. You can mail a letter at the post office.
6. You can buy stamps at the post office.

The Sail Boat.



The boat goes sailing
over the waves




Police man



Police man Police man
We are on your beat
Police man Police man
Help us cross the street

Figs. 34 and 35. Music finds a place on charts.

Figs. 36 and 37. The candy sale and some of the plans following it.

Our Candy Sale

We wanted some money
to get our rug cleaned.
We had a candy sale.
Our mothers
made the candy
Children rushed
to buy it
We made \$6.05.

Our Account

Cash from sale 7.00

Article bought	Cost	Balance
Green paint	59	6.41
Yellow paint	36	6.05
Braces	10	5.95
Bird seed	10	5.85
Cotton	10	5.75
Tin pans	57	5.18
Easter party	15	4.03

14. *Creative work developing out of the unit experience.*
15. *Progress reports.* Children feel that they need this type of reading material in order to carry on their business in the classroom. It really is functional reading for them, and the wise teacher continually makes use of these charts for reference materials as the work progresses with the group.
16. *Interesting expressions.*
17. *Picture words.*
18. *Words I need.*
19. *Important happenings.*
20. *Weather, bird, or seasonal charts.*
21. *Color or number charts.*
22. *Progress charts.* Perhaps such records as war stamps or height and weight may be desirable.
23. *Cafeteria menus* are used to help children make proper selections.
24. *Food charts* are helpful today in making children conscious of what proper foods do for the body.

XII

Identifying Good and Poor Charts

Types of Good Charts

The purpose a chart is to serve must be kept in mind when it is being planned and then the chart should be checked against that purpose to see if it fills it adequately. When analyzing the chart itself, one should ask, "What purpose was that chart to serve?" "Does it do it?"

"Tools We Shall Use." This clear-cut title groups the vocabulary together with a picture of the article under one classification. This is a good example of a vocabulary chart which will be helpful to the child.

Little words such as "big" and "little" are troublesome. This chart (23) was designed to help the child in the identification of these words. Dictionary charts which show relationships such as "on," "in," "under," and so forth, or those which indicate clear-cut action such as "run," "jump," and so forth, are excellent self-helping devices.

Dictionary charts (24) are hung where they are readily accessible to children who pass freely to them and compare bothersome words with those on the chart. Teachers group needed words together on one chart. The picture gives the cue to the word needed.

These same words and pictures can be placed on small cards and interesting games developed with them.

Pleasant events may furnish themes for purposeful chart work. Name vocabulary charts (25) are always helpful when a child is learning to recognize and spell his name. Colorful, interesting pictures from magazine covers add to the attractiveness of many charts or may become the center of an incidental chart. Charts developed around events in an individual's life, such as "Johnnie's new shirt," or "Mary's birthday," "The arrival of a new baby," offer innumerable incidental chart opportunities which connect personal interest with a reading situation. These charts form the basis of free reading situations and may serve as material for library table booklets.

Creative work in the Kindergarten furnishes an opportunity for chart experiences on that level. The story of the little girl (26) was told by the child and printed by the teacher. As the teacher read the story to the children she ran her hand under the line thus guiding the eyes of the children from left to right. This shows the children the left to right movement needed in reading.

Sometimes the weather furnishes a chart subject. A teacher utilized such an opportunity to bring before her children an old familiar nursery rime. At the top of the chart she sketched a group of children and a puppy huddled under adult-sized umbrellas, with the rain pelting down on them. Under the picture, in large letters, with the words widely-spaced, she printed the familiar old rime:

Rain rain

Go away

Come again

Some other day.

Dramatic possibilities are often suggested by pictures (27). These bits of reality often tie in with units of work and make fascinating chart material.

The second grade which developed the "Wheel of City Service" chart (28) was studying their community. They began their study with a visit to the mayor. As the group branched out in their study, they went back to the mayor and he in turn introduced them to the head of the department they were to investigate. It was in this manner that the city relationships were built up and found expression in a chart of this type. This type of chart is a simple basis for graph reading. It stimulates an interest in other types of reading material.

Our objectives in education today include not only gaining information, but laying great stress on developing attitudes and habits. The teacher tries to help pupils become critical-minded, tolerant, coöperative, responsible and independent. She also tries to help them develop habits of promptness, neatness, orderliness, clear thinking and the like. To

help children set up standards for their room or themselves, the teacher works with the group to develop such charts as those given in illustration 29. Such charts can be kept before pupils in evaluating their efforts to achieve their objectives. Such experiences provide excellent situations for learning critical mindedness, tolerance, independence, responsibility and the like as well as developing other desirable habits and attitudes. Simple working drawings or illustrations of proposed plans placed in charts clarify concepts. Such exposures gradually introduce children to other types of reading situations.

Addresses of home, school, or other particular places affecting the immediate needs of the children find their place on charts (30).

Suggestions and reminders (31) built by the group and hung where they are accessible for reading are helpful in stimulating profitable behavior.

The milkman story (32) is an example of a chart composed by second grade children. It is well phrased and in neat manuscript writing. The teacher of this group used the hanging paragraph form which is less desirable than the true paragraph form.

In carrying on their unit on the post office the children in the second grade found it was necessary to pass a civil service test to secure a position as a post-office employee. They made out their own "civil service test" for their own "employees." The "Yes-No" test found on this chart (33) constituted a small portion of that test.

Music charts (34 and 35) are valuable for reading experiences and are very satisfying to children.

"Our Candy Sale" charts (36 and 37) indicate how money was earned by one group and are helpful in exposing children to other symbols used in making records.

Although the number experience in these charts seems difficult, the meaning is easily explained to children. The teacher works the problems and does the recording. The children read the chart and are very much interested in the financial results of their sale.

Examples of Charts Which Could Be Improved

"The Garbage Man" chart (38) was composed by a first grade child. It has good composition, but the teacher could improve in the mechanics of chart construction. A comparison of "The Milkman" chart (illustration 32) and the "Garbage Man" chart immediately shows a difference in general appearance. The latter chart could be improved in phrasing and also in setting each sentence in paragraph form. A paragraph such as the one found on this chart is too heavy for a beginner in reading.

This chart would be improved if it were phrased in thought units to guide the child's eye and voice span such as:

This is
the garbage man.
He is just coming
from the house.
He is going
to another house.

Two different stories on the one chart (39) are confusing to little children. It would have been useful if the story with the illustration had been repeated below. This should be a teaching chart used to aid in the development of the story found in their book. The illustration if used alone is too small for the lower story unless the children are directly in front of the chart. The lower story is good in composition and interest appeal. The manuscript writing is neat and legible, though very small, and the lines are close together for such a large chart.

Compare music chart (40) with the one in illustration 34. In illustration 40 the notes have no staff and yet appear to be expressing a tune. This is not the way the little child sees music, so it is confusing to him. The printing is crowded and difficult to read.

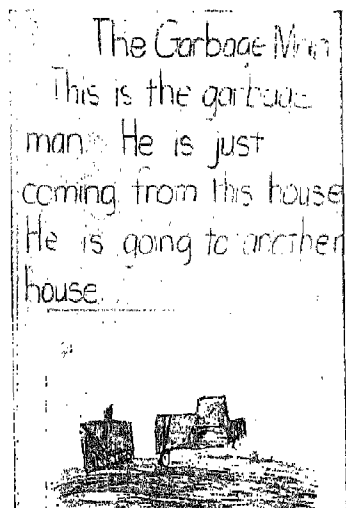
"The Story of Wheat" (41) is an example of a first grade chart which is too heavy for its grade placement. If one were to see and read it without knowing differently he would take it for a good third grade chart.

These two "Living Room" charts were taken from one room on two successive years (42-43). Each year the experiences of the children centered around "The Home." Note the growth in simplicity of the manuscript writing, (43), hence the ease of reading. This teacher made progress in the ability to draw from her group more interesting content. It would have been improved in form if she had used an indenture in beginning her story.

Words Introduced. One of the most neglected phases of chart building is that of word control. It is

altogether too easy to introduce too many new words and to introduce them too fast. Words can be introduced faster in a chart than in a regular reader for two reasons: first, the material itself is familiar, since the children are helping to compose it out of their experience. Secondly, many of the words used are special words, related particularly to the subject at hand such as bedroom, kitchen, and dresser, or Hallowe'en and costume, and are not intended to be learned in the way the words in the basic list should be. However, there should not be too many new words used in any chart, and basic words should have repetition. The number of new words and the amount of repetition should vary with the ability of the group. The basic words should, as far as possible, correspond with those in the word list in the readers intended to be used.

Summary. In general, then, certain principles can be drawn which distinguish good charts. First, each chart must serve the purpose it is intended to serve, and, over a period of time, charts should serve a variety of purposes. They should be simple and unified. They should be suited to the ability of the children for whom they are intended. There should be adequate word control. The mechanics should be good, the print clear and large enough, and the lines well spaced. The sentences should be correctly phrased in thought units and indented in regular paragraph form.



Figs. 38-40. These charts could all be improved.

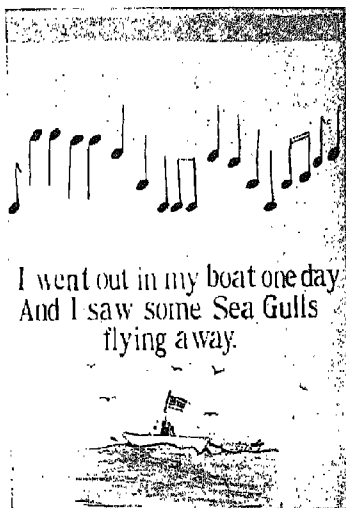
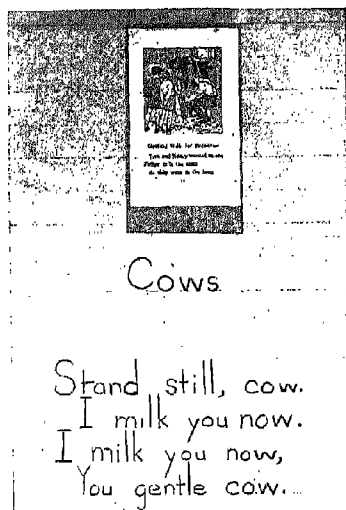


FIG. 41. This chart is too advanced. It might well be used in the third grade.

The Story of Wheat

Once upon a time, long ago, there were no plows. The farmers had to dig up the ground with a stick. That is the way the farmers planted their wheat.

Now we have iron plows. Horses or tractors pull the plows, and break up the ground.

When the wheat is ripe, it has to be cut down, or mowed.

Figs. 42 and 43. These two charts show improvement.



The Living Room

This is the living room.

There is a davenport
in the room for the family.

There are chairs.

There is a radio.



The Living Room

There is a little table
and some chairs

and a couch

in the living room.

We can sit down
and read our books.

XIII

Setting Up a Reading Environment

Many teachers agree with all that has been said about reading experiences but do not know how to organize their classroom or their work to accomplish it. The following reports are accounts written by classroom teachers who have been very successful in teaching reading. These reports are full of suggestions which can be adopted or modified and adapted to other teaching situations.

The children under these programs have made excellent progress in personal development and reading interest, as well as in actual reading ability.

A DESCRIPTION OF A JUNIOR-PRIMARY ROOM ¹

Of the twenty-one children in this junior primary-first grade group all but five had had kindergarten experience. About half of them came from a foreign background, and several had a foreign language difficulty. The family incomes ranged from a professional salary to that of those who were on relief. Most of the boys and girls walked to school as their homes were

¹ Written by Lois Proud, combined Junior Primary and First Grade Teacher, Harding School, Santa Barbara, California.

nearby. There was a neighborhood shopping center about four blocks from the school.

Some of the group were very immature and the five who had not been in kindergarten needed guidance in acquiring good work habits and self-control. The majority were familiar with planning and evaluating work, thus being able to offer helpful criticism during the discussion period.

Upon arrival in the fall of the year all of the children entered on the junior primary level. As the semester progressed, the ability to work more independently increased and soon a group of eleven children showing first grade ability were doing work papers correlated with their reading vocabulary at a large work table. The remainder who were not ready for reading continued to build a background through using reading-readiness materials placed on five kindergarten tables along one side of the room.

From the opening day of school, plans were formed for the first hour work period. One child each week was chosen to take the absence slip, including the number eating in the cafeteria, over to the principal's office. The primary building was across the street, so the need for watching out for cars was discussed and other helpful safety precautions were suggested.

Pictures were shown from the book, *Peter's Family* by Hanna, Anderson, Potter, and Gray.² After the children had told about their own families, Arlene asked if they could have a family to play keeping house in the room. They chose a father, mother, boy

² Paul R. Hanna and others, *Peter's Family* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1935).

and a girl. Then followed the question, "Where will the house be?" By joining some portable walls which the school provides, a living-room and playroom began to occupy one end of the classroom. Next, the group voted to construct such pieces of furniture as a davenport, a chair "for father," and a spinet piano. Several committees, each headed by a chairman, were selected to begin construction.

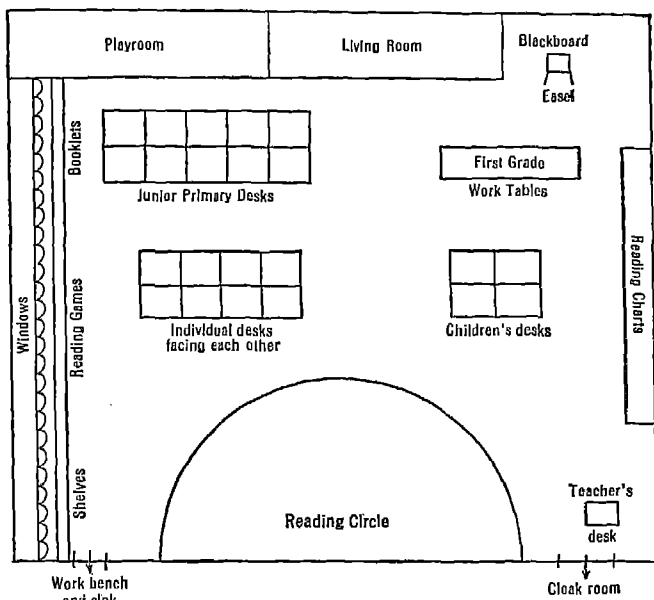


Diagram of a Junior-Primary room showing how tables may be grouped into work centers.

It was decided that while building was going on four children could work at the clay table and two could paint at the easel. After little color books were completed, booklets about the family were placed on

a low shelf. These were easily available when other work was finished. Upon completion of one job, each child was encouraged to find another worthwhile activity without wasting time. Progress could be noted, for nearly everyone was able to work and plan further with less detailed supervision from the teacher.

Several children who could tell time took turns ringing a small desk bell to show when the clock said "9:45." This was the signal for clean-up time. As work and tools were put away, the children went into the circle of small chairs at the front of the room. Sawdust and paper scraps were swept up and a fine spirit of each one helping his neighbor to keep the room attractive was shown.

Those who worked at the easel washed the brushes, pointed the bristles, and put up clean paper for the next hour's free time painting. Children working at the clay table soon learned, without being reminded, to put each color of clay into a separate container and to roll loose clay into a ball. Any object a child wished to display was placed upon a shelf reserved for this purpose. Michiko offered to sponge off the oilcloth covering the table, and Elica wiped up any particles of clay found upon the floor. The family that had been playing in the home put things in order for the next family's turn.

All having participated in cleaning up, the group was ready for discussion and plans.

"I'll bring a celery crate for the spinet piano tomorrow," Denny volunteered.

"Thank you, Denny. That is thoughtful of you,"

the teacher replied. "Do you have any suggestions for improving our work?"

Joy Ellen said, "When Ronald put the upholstery on the davenport, he bent some nails crooked. They look better pounded in straight."

Tony reminded the class about keeping the drops of paint from running down easel pictures. "I wipe my brush on the jar," he explained.

At this time committee chairmen checked up on the work accomplished. Other children's opinions were asked for in making a decision and reports were made about plans for the next day's work.

After the first recess those ready for pre-primers read. Approximately two hours per day was spent on reading. Due to earlier planning the two first grade reading groups as well as the junior primary class had become accustomed to budgeting their time to good advantage; that is, work papers and, later, work books accompanying pre-primers were used first, and extra time was known as "free time." Provision for free-time activity had been made along with the reading-readiness materials. There were color games, number games, and word recognition games (pictures of domestic animals, objects, and members of the family with matching words in envelopes). On the library table were picture books and easy pre-primers from the central library. Also in boxes numbered from one to eight on a low shelf were permanent reading games which helped in vocabulary building. There were check cards on the chalk railing where a child could quietly test himself while a group was reading. Sometimes a child would take his game over

to another child and softly ask if his game was right.

Some of the group not yet in pre-primers had been printing their names in manuscript writing at the board. Joanne, Michiko, Jimmy, and LaVerne colored with crayolas animal cut-outs for the playroom wall. As there were many apple-box cupboards to be painted for the playroom, Henry and Jeddy worked on these instead of going to the tables. When his turn to go to the circle came, each joined the group without loss of time. Chart stories were dictated about a new house that was being built next to the school.

After completing a number game, Elliott and Tony turned the crank on the moving picture which had been made of "The Three Little Pigs" and took turns reading the printed sentences.

During discussion period the need for quiet voices while some members of the group were having free time was pointed out so that those who were reading might not be disturbed. In order to avoid interruptions, it was agreed to leave the room only when necessary and to ask questions about very important matters only.

After the children returned to the room from playing games on the playground, work papers and work books were checked. Those who needed help with some difficulty were given encouragement. The timid child felt free to show the painting or drawing he had accomplished. Tom was praised because he formerly took most of his time to do his work paper, but now he was able to enjoy more of the free time activities.

A DESCRIPTION OF A FIRST-GRADE ROOM ³

I. The Children and Their Environment

A. Size of group

Thirty-two children (14 boys and 18 girls).

B. Grade level

First grade.

C. Amount of time children had to take care of themselves

About one and one-half hours daily.

D. The home and community environment

They were all normal children, and most of them came from very good English-speaking families of moderate means. The parents were coöperative and helped the children to contribute materials needed for group activities. Santa Barbara has a rich cultural background to offer the schools: Harbor, dairies, factories, and so forth. The schools encourage excursions, and have materials and visual aids of all kinds available.

II. The Classroom Environment

A. General facilities

There were thirty-six tables and chairs. Each child did not have a table where he did all his work during the day. He used the shelf of a table on which to keep his own materials until he was ready to take them home. It was the child's responsibility to keep the shelf neat and clean.

³ Written by Hazel S. Gridley, First Grade Teacher, Harding High School, Santa Barbara, California.

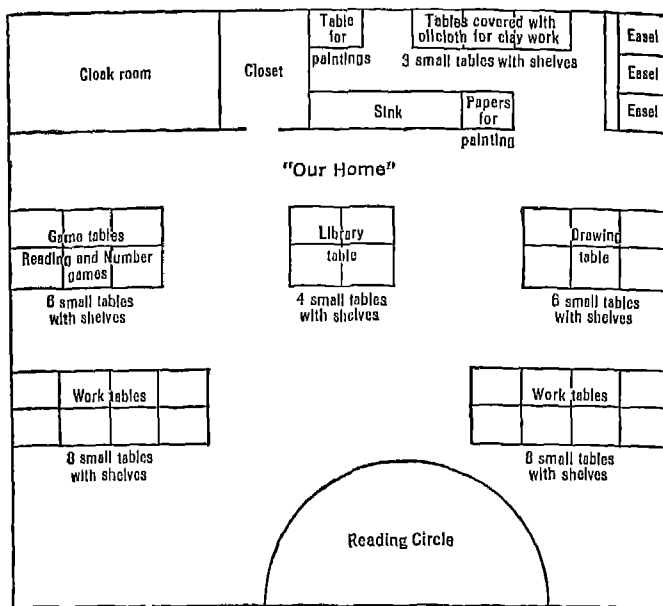


Diagram of a well-arranged First-Grade Room.

B. The art room

In the art room there were three tables covered with oilcloth. These were called the clay tables. Each child took care of his own clay. If he had made something that he felt was worthwhile, he put it on the display shelf for all to see. Otherwise, he put it back with the rest of the clay to be used again.

There were three easels made of heavy chip-board. They were standing on a large shelf and leaned against boxes (which did not show). In front of the easels were bottles containing easel

paint and brushes. There was a table containing papers for painting to which each child helped himself, fastening the paper to the easel with two clothespins. When he had finished his painting, he put his name on it, and put it on another table to dry.

C. The drawing table

The drawing table had on it two trays of crayolas, drawing paper, and unprinted news.

D. The game table

The game table had many different types of reading and number games. They were all numbered so that the child could be tested and given credit for having learned the game. Each child had his own card to be checked so that he would know which games he had completed.

E. The library table

The library table had picture books and reading books on the first grade level.

F. The work tables

The work tables had two trays of crayolas, two trays of scissors, and two jars of paste on each group of work tables.

There were definite understandings, decided upon by the children, concerning the work habits at each work center. By each work center was a chart. The one at the work tables read:

WE WORK QUIETLY.

WE HAVE CLEAN HANDS.

WE FINISH OUR WORK.

WE PUT OUR WORK AWAY.

The classroom home, the furniture for which was being built by the children, was partly finished. During free period the children liked to sit on the davenport and read their books, write at the desk, or play quiet games on the floor.

III. Description of a Typical Day

A. Preliminary activities

The kindergarten, first, and second grades were housed in one building. When the bell rang the children assembled in the courtyard. They took turns leading the flag salute, and all sang patriotic songs. At this time any reports that were of interest to the entire group were given. This assembly was very short. The groups then went to their own rooms.

The first-grade children had chosen two song leaders and, some children having nothing to put away, went directly to the circle in the front of the room and begin singing until the teacher was ready to take charge of the group. The absence slip was prepared and the cafeteria people counted, and once a week the children brought money to put in their own savings accounts. While the teacher got this bank money ready, a child took charge of the group and asked for reports. These reports were of various sorts but were usually of an evaluation type.

B. First hour.

The first hour was used as a planning, evaluating, construction, and clean-up period. The

children worked on committees. The committees released for work first were those which knew how to go on with their work without the help of the teacher. However, only committees that would not disturb the rest of the group could begin work. If the building committee was ready, the children got their materials out, but waited to begin work until after the other committees had been released.

If a child had completed his work for that day or for some reason had nothing to do on the unit work, he went to one of the work centers. It was understood that no child should stand around and waste his time, or disturb anyone else. At first the teacher or the group had to help the child decide what to do, but he soon learned to decide for himself which work center he should go to.

At 9:50 a child rang the bell and announced that it was clean-up time. All helped and, as each child finished, he went to the circle, and the song leaders had them sing until everyone was in the circle.

C. Second hour and first half of the third.

The second hour and the first half of the third hour was divided into three parts:

Group I	Read
Group II	Work period
Group III	Free period
Group II	Read
Group III	Work period
Group I	Free period

Group III	Read
Group I	Work period
Group II	Free period

This arrangement gave each group one reading period, one work period, and one free period every day. However, the groups did not always work in the same order every day.

The children who had free period went to the library table, game table, drawing table, art room, or in "our home." Of course they knew they must always remember to be considerate of the reading group and the group at the work tables. The reading group was not interrupted unless it was very important. All directions and help necessary were given before the groups began work. The child became more independent if he learned to decide for himself what he should do after he finished one thing. This matter was discussed with the group and the child who had not learned to plan his work well was helped. If, for example, a child had finished only one game at the game table and most of the children had finished several, he learned that he had spent too much time in the art room or at one of the other work centers. A little discussion at the beginning of the year, and checking often on the work the child had done helped him to decide for himself whether he had been spending too much time at one work center and neglecting the others.

Every child had a work period every day, during which he must complete the work assign-

ment for that day. When the *Bob and Judy*⁴ work books were used, the papers were checked every day to see that they were correct and that proper work habits were being formed. The children agreed that, if necessary, they would use part of their free period to complete their work papers. If the work assignment was completed in less time, the child decided for himself which work center he would go to without disturbing the rest of the group. If he did disturb the group, he usually said, "I'm sorry," or "Pardon me." A remark of this kind was expected.

D. Second half of the third hour.

The group usually went out of doors for games during the second half of the third hour. The children then cleaned up and went to lunch.

E. Afternoon (1:00 to 2:30).

Music, word drill, phonics, chart reading, stories, and dramatization made up the afternoon program.

IV. Types of Material Used:

A. Commercial material

1. *Sue and Mickey*⁵ a reading readiness work book.
2. *Nip and Tuck, Bob and Judy*, a work book which accompanies the readers by the same name.

⁴ Grace E. Storm, *Bob and Judy* (primer). Guidance in Reading Series (Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1929), *Nip and Tuck* (pre-primer), 1936.

⁵ Grace E. Storm, *Sue and Mickey* (a pre-reading book). Guidance in Reading Series (Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1937).

B. Other materials

The teacher made many work papers of all kinds, beginning with very simple ones and gradually increasing the vocabulary. The group usually built a home first, so the papers were about the family and the home. There were pictures with words to match, which required cutting and pasting and coloring.

They used simple sentences which belonged to the picture, and true and false sentences. The children circled like words or phrases and sentences which were alike. They also used papers to teach "big" and "little," "in" and "on," "under" and "over," and many other words.

They made many simple books about the family, things the class liked to do (to teach action words by having a picture with the sentence below), number books (picture, number, and word).

The children looked forward to these books and papers and took a great deal of pride in using them. If it was a book, they were proud when they could be checked on the vocabulary in the book and then take it home. The teacher had a very definite check on whether the books and papers were helping the child to increase his reading vocabulary.

Summary. These accounts give pictures of how two primary rooms look and function. There is nothing complicated or expensive involved. Any teacher who has tables and chairs to work with could fashion

similar rooms with a little ingenuity. The room arrangement does not solve the whole problem or insure adequate experience for the child. Neither does the time schedule. They are good examples of situations in which teachers may carry out effective plans. They provide facilities that enable the teacher to form groups according to the children's ability. They show the results of planning to take care of groups that are working by themselves. They do not just furnish "busy" work, but even under these circumstances provide the children with games, reading material, and activities according to the needs of those particular children. They plan for developing habits and attitudes which help indirectly but very definitely in developing reading ability as well as progress along all lines. Habits of independence, initiative, self-reliance, neatness, and working efficiency give a sound foundation for all future development.

Room arrangement and schedule insure nothing. Thoughtfully and creatively planned, they do give opportunity for the best type of experience. They furnish the background which permits the teacher to carry out the principles put forth in the book, helping children to learn through planned and guided experience. The teacher is the center of the learning situation; there is no substitute for intelligent planning and capable handling of children.

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